DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 147 302 SP 011 938

TITLE Proceedings of the First World Congress of Comparative Education Societies on the Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers during International Education Year, Ottawa, Canada, August 1970.

INSTITUTION World Council of Comparative Education Societies, Geneva (Switzerland).

PUB DATE Aug 70

NOTE 188p.

AVAILABLE FROM World Council of Comparative Education Societies, Palais Wilson, 52 rue des Paquis, 1211 Geneva 14 Switzerland ($3.00)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.

DESCRIPTORS *Comparative Education; *Conference Reports; Foreign Countries; Graduate Study; Instructional Materials; *International Education; Program Development; Relevance (Education); *Teacher Education; Undergraduate Study

ABSTRACT

This document is a record of proceedings of the First World Congress of Comparative Education Societies which met in August 1970 to discuss three questions: (1) the administrative and juridical aspects of creating a Council and a continuing Congress; (2) the place of comparative and international education in the education of teachers; and (3) the role and rationale for educational aid to developing countries. The document contains twenty-nine papers delivered to the Congress, loosely organized into the following categories: (1) the place of comparative and international education in teacher education (general discussions, the subject as a valid field of inquiry, its relevance to teacher education); (2) comparative and international education in specific countries (Federal Republic of Germany, Singapore, Hong Kong, Romania); (3) comparative and international education at various levels of teacher preparation (undergraduate and graduate) and for all levels of teachers (K-12); (4) course organization; and (5) teaching materials and aids. Appended are a list of conference participants and final resolutions of the Congress. Guidelines based upon the Congress papers are also appended. (MJB)

****
* Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished *
* materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort *
* to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal *
* reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality *
* of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available *
* via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not *
* responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions *
* supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original. *
****

ED147302

Proceedings of the First World Congress Of Comparative Education Societies on The Place Of Comparative And International Education In The Education Of Teachers

during

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR

OTTAWA, CANADA

August, 1970

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL BY MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
World Council of
Comparative Educ Societies
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND THE ERIC SYSTEM CONTRACTORS."

SP011938

PROCEEDINGS

of the

FIRST WORLD CONGRESS OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION SOCIETIES

on

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

during

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR

OTTAWA, CANADA

August, 1970

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TEACHER EDUCATION

TITLE	AUTHOR	Page
The Purpose, Plan and Program for the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies	Joseph Katz	1
The Role of Comparative Education in Teacher Training in the Federal Republic of Germany.	Oskar Anweiler, West Germany	3
The Role of the University Teacher in International Aid Programmes in Education	M. K. Bacchus, Alberta	7
Historical Perspectives on the International Component in Teacher Education	William W. Brickman, Pennsylvania	11
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Preparation of Teachers - Graduate and Undergraduate Programs	Victor Couch, Australia	25
Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers - Organization of Courses	Lionel Desjarlais University of Ottawa	28
Some Reflections on the Relation Between Educational Processes and the Processes of Modernization and Change.	L. Aran, S. N. Eisenstadt, C. Adler. Israel	31
World-Oriented Education for Institutions of Learning at all Levels	George Geng, Glassboro State College Glassboro, N.J., U.S.	34
Comparative Education in Teacher Education	Margaret Gillett, McGill University	39
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers - Materials and Aids.	Willis H. Griffin, University of Kentucky, U.S.A.	42
The Place of Comparative and International Education in Undergraduate and Graduate Programs	W. D. Halls, Oxford, England	46
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers	Torsten Husen, University of Stockholm, Sweden	51
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers	William H. E. Johnson, University of Pittsburgh	56
Comparative Studies in the Education of Teachers	Edmund J. King, University of London, King's College	59
Comparative Education in the Training of Teachers	R. F. Lawson	64

TABLE OF CONTENTS - (Continued)

TITLE	AUTHOR	Page
Comparative and International Education as a Field of Inquiry	Elizabeth Steiner Maccia and George S. Maccia, Indiana University	67
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers with Special Reference to the Organization of Courses	R. G. MacMillan, University of Natal, South Africa	72
Comparative Education in the Training of Professionals and in the Preparation of Teachers	David W. McDowell, and Juul v. R. Altena, State University College, New Paltz, N.Y., U.S.A.	76
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers	Abel Prieto Morales Cuba	82
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers: Graduate and Undergraduate Programs	Yutaka Okihara Hiroshima University Japan	83
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers - Focus: Materials and Aids	Douglas Ray University of Western Ontario .	86
Comparative Education in Teacher Development	A. Paplauskas Ramunas Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa	92
The Relevance of Comparative Education for Teacher Training	Saul B. Robinsohn, Max Planck Society, and Free University (Berlin)	132
Materials and Aids in Comparative Education in the Frame-Work of the University	H. Röhrs, Heidelberg University, Heidelberg, Germany	137
The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers: Organization of Courses	Susanne M. Shafer Arizona State University Tempe, Arizona	141
Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers	Andrew F. Skinner University of Toronto	146
The Use of Aids in Teaching Comparative Education to Future Teachers	Margaret B. Sutherland, Queen's University, Belfast, Northern Ireland . . .	149
Comparative Education in the Education of Teachers: Singapore and Hong Kong	Cho-Yee To, School of Education, The University of Michigan . . .	152
The International and Comparative Education in the Training and the In-service Training System for the Teachers in Romania	George Vaideanu and Vasile Iliescu, Bucharest, Rumania	158
La place de l'education comparee et internationale dans la preparation des maitres.	Alexandre Vexliard Universite d'Ankara	161

APPENDIX - Registration List 164

Final Resolutions of the Congress 172

THE PURPOSE, PLAN AND PROGRAM FOR THE WORLD CONGRESS OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION SOCIETIES

Joseph Katz, Ph.D.,
Ottawa, Canada, 1970

Purposes

This first World Congress of Comparative Education Societies meets on the occasion of the first International Education Year. The occasion is significant in that for the first time the United Nations have formally declared an International Education Year and in so doing have recognized that education takes its place along with politics and economics in helping to shape a better world. In so doing, too, the United Nations have given the minds of men their rightful place in the scale of human values. They have, in effect, said that men, money and materials must be as readily available for books as for business and bombs, and for peace as for wares and wars. The sentence in the preamble to the United Nations Charter stating that "wars begin in the minds of men" is only partly true. Men enter war with their instincts and seek peace with their minds. The United Nations have in this Year come to recognize that education is the road to the hearts and minds of men and it is this recognition which provides us with our opportunity and our challenge.

This congress meets for several reasons. We meet to help achieve a world in which men, women and children everywhere can benefit from the best that civilization has to offer. We meet to further the aspirations of peoples throughout the world who have over the years been turning increasingly to education as a means to improve their own and their children's lives. We meet to find ways of education and means of aid which will help reduce the disgraceful disparities which attend the lives of the poor and the rich; the literate and the illiterate, the possessed and the dispossessed. We meet to help create social, economic, political and spiritual conditions which will enable peoples everywhere to share in the advances of science and technology and live with justice and humanity. We meet, in short, to help people everywhere through education to substitute the civilized minds of men for the uncivilized instincts of nature.

Problems

In particular, we meet to discuss three major questions:

1. The administrative and juridicial aspects of creating a Council and a continuing Congress;
2. The place of comparative and international education in the education of teachers;
3. The role and rationale for educational aid to developing countries.

The first of these questions is a matter of exploring ways and means of continuing communication between and among the various societies. The Congress will be asked to consider a Council and a continuing Congress and make recommendations for consideration by the societies at their respective annual meetings.

The second and third questions are the questions of substance for this Congress. These two questions are of special significance in today's world, a world that is divided between the haves and the have-nots; between the developed and the developing; between the nationally and internationally inclined; between the industrial and the agricultural; and between those who suffer an annual average income of $50.00 and those who also enjoy $4500.00. For comparative educators interested in examining the similarities and differences in the educative process of various groups the examination of the educational relationships obtaining between the overdeveloped and the underdeveloped areas of the world constitute a very special challenge.

The two questions to be examined here are essentially complimentary. On the one hand the examination of the place of comparative and international education in the education of teachers will, hopefully, result in developed societies preparing teachers who will in their turn help prepare students to appreciate the basic human needs and values of peoples everywhere. On the other hand, the examination of the role and rationale for educational aid to developing countries will result in much more efficient and effective policies and practices which take into account cultural strengths and historical trends which characterize the ethos of developing societies. Hopefully, too, the results of our deliberations will be such as to help arrest the widening chasm between the different parts of our divided world and lay the basis for equalizing levels of living for all. In essence, this Congress of Comparative Education Societies is dedicated to the proposition that the similarities in the human condition which obtain in both developed and developing societies can, if reasonably cultivated, reconcile the differences and make possible a more humane society for all.

In addition, and as a special feature, the Congress will have an opportunity to hear reports of the International Education Achievements Projects presently in progress. The reports of the Mathematics Achievements Projects clearly demonstrated what was possible on a world scale. These evaluative studies of student performance in the common branches of study provide us with an insight into our common intellectual heritage. These studies suggest, too, that given opportunity educational aspirations can be more than matches by educational achievements.

Plans

The Congress itself is evidence that people will work together to achieve not only common but uncommon goals as well. The members of the International Committee are grateful to the Canadian International Development Agency, the Canadian National Commission for UNESCO, UNESCO Paris, Kent State University, the University of British Columbia, the Governments of Quebec and Ontario, the Comparative Education Societies, and last, but certainly not least, the University of Ottawa and its Comparative Education Centre as well as the Congress Secretariat for the professional and financial assistance which make these meetings a reality.

The plans of the Congress include the publication of the proceedings, and, in addition, two sets of guidelines, one set of guidelines indicating ways of placing comparative and international education studies in teacher education programmes and one set of guidelines on what appear to be reasonable rationals for educational aid to developing countries. Hopefully, these publications will help all who participate to balance hindsight with foresight; help those who wished to attend but could not to share in our deliberations, and help those engaged in teacher training and educational aid to reach their goals.

Joseph Katz, Ph.D.,
Professor of Comparative Education,
The University of British Columbia, and
Chairman, International Committee, World Congress.

August, 1970.

THE ROLE OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN TEACHER TRAINING IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Oskar Anweiler

At the beginning of the 1970's teacher training in the Federal Republic of Germany faces a new period of reform. In the previous ten years the demand for an academic training even for elementary school (Volksschule) teachers has generally been implemented; colleges of education in every Land of the Federal Republic have been granted the legal status of academic training institutions, some with strong, others with looser connections to the universities. When this had been accomplished the swift expansion of higher education made it necessary to link existing colleges and universities, as well as those in construction, more closely together in their organisation. Plans for a "comprehensive university" (a term much in need of interpretation) are especially concerned with a closer integration of the colleges of education with other institutions of higher education, in particular with the universities. During this process the courses of study, developed up till now quite independently are to be coordinated. Although the autonomy of the Lander is to be retained in this sphere, the increased powers of the Federal government in higher education will gradually result in greater unification.

Parallel to this tendency a great change in the organisation of the teaching profession can be seen. The present tripartite school system - Volksschule or Hauptschule, Realschule and Gymnasium - is dropped by all reform plans in favour of a horizontal division into a primary and two secondary stages; whether school policy in all the Lander will conform to these suggestions is, however, doubtful. The suggestions for the reform of teacher training (e.g. the plan for future school structure developed by the German Council for Education of the recommendations of the North Rhine Westphalian planning committee for higher education) envisage teachers for the different stages of education rather than for the different types of schools as at present, as well as teachers with special tasks (e.g. guidance and counselling, curriculum construction and evaluation), Furthermore a reform of the secondary stage of teacher training, in-service training (Referendariat), the organisation of which has been completely separate from the universities and colleges of education, has been recommended. The practical side of the training is to be connected much more closely to the theoretical course at the Universities and colleges of education.

Up till now the training of future elementary school teachers has included the study of education to a much greater extent than that of grammar school teachers. Until very recently both courses emphasized mainly the more general, philosophical and historical aspects; there was no question of a real preparation in education for a teaching career (e.g. assessment methods, technology in teaching). At the universities it has only been very recently that the individual subjects have started to occupy themselves with the pressing problems of applying academic disciplines to school teaching; at the colleges of education, where attention has long been devoted to this problem for elementary school teaching, it is necessary that contact should be kept with recent research in the different subjects. In general one can say emphasis is increasingly being laid on courses in education and social sciences for future teachers. The colleges of education are at present enjoying a boom in the creation of new staff posts which they are not all able to occupy adequately.

It is against this background of the present and future state of teacher training in West Germany that the role of comparative education is to be reviewed. Nowhere is comparative education yet a permanent, exactly defined and compulsory part of the course in education. There is no doubt that this is, on the one hand, to a great extent due to its numerically weak position on the staffs of the universities and colleges; on the other, however, to its indeterminate relation to the other branches of education. In 1970 only five universities and as many colleges of education have Chairs of comparative education so that it is only here that students can be sure of the provision of courses in this field (cf. Appendix 1). At some universities and colleges there are only occasional courses on this subject, and these are not always given by staff fully qualified in this sphere.

One particularity of the teacher training course in Germany, as of higher education in general, is - in contrast to most other countries - the fairly generous "freedom of study", that is, the possibility of choosing what lectures etc. to attend for one subject and what area of study to emphasise in particular. It is obvious that where there is no, or very little, provision of courses in comparative education the incentive to choose this field of study is not present. Conversely it has been proved that where there is regular and ample provision of courses of this kind the students interest in comparative education and their readiness to take it up are comparatively great. Recently the trend to a more strictly systematic organisation of the academic course in education and to the compilation of certain compulsory courses for all students has become very evident. The German Association for Educational Sciences (Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Erziehungswissenschaft) outline in 1968 recommendations for a basic course (Kernstudium) in education, which included a core of minimum requirements for all courses of study. This also requires an "introduction into the problems of comparative education", to be based on selected topics from the recommended field of study. The general regulations for the Diploma of Education, decided on in 1969, require for the intermediary and final examinations a knowledge of comparative, international aspects for certain topics. Before these plans can be carried out, however, there must be strong teaching teams, such as can at present only be found in Bochum, Hamburg and Marburg.

Both the organisation of a course of study in comparative education and the teaching must take the above-mentioned conditions into consideration. Where comparative education is part of the general course of study in education it can only be an introduction to the scope and problems involved, illustrated by limited topics. It is, in this case, certainly not possible to think of it as a course extending over several terms and, therefore, topics are generally chosen that are relevant to school life and have a definite and practical use to the students. By being put into, and compared with, the international situation these topics help to widen the students' outlook, which mostly tends to be limited to their own national school system. An attempt to give a large number of students a basic introduction to the science of education with a definitely comparative emphasis will be made, for example, in a course of lectures and seminars to be held in the winter semester 1970/71 at Bochum University. The course will involve four hours a week team teaching by five members of staff (theme: An international comparison of structure and development problems in educational systems) and a specially prepared paper will give the students the necessary information about the six countries to be studied. In the lectures and group work certain fields of interest will be discussed with particular attention being paid to comparative aspects.

For students studying education as a main subject, either in order to teach it at a Gymnasium in North Rhine Westphalia, or so as to take an M.A. or Ph.D. as a qualification for a career in education at the university or elsewhere, it is quite possible to lay particular stress on comparative education. In the regulations for taking education as a main subject at Bochum University three different stages are laid down: (a) elementary (b) senior (c) specialist. The elementary stage provides a uniform basic knowledge of education, introducing the following fields of study: (a) the study of the child and the adolescent (b) educational systems (c) curriculum and teaching methods (d) methodological foundations of the subject. Besides this students must choose two elementary seminars from those offered, attend three courses on methods and do three stretches of teaching practice or of watching classes. For the senior stage (third and further years) six fields of study are laid down, two of which must be studied in depth for the final examination: (1) research on curriculum and teaching methods (2) counselling and guidance (3) social education (4) adult education (5) administration, planning and development of the educational system (6) methods of teaching education in schools. The specialist stage is for Ph.D. students doing intensive and specialized research on some particular sphere of education. The course of study is established individually and is carried out within the scope of the research done by the individual Chairs of education.

This example of a course of study for students with education as a main subject shows that it is not primarily organised according to the individual disciplines of education (e.g. history of education, comparative education, psychology of education) but according to a broader range of problems and future careers. As a result comparative education involves not so much a course of study complete in itself but rather certain aspects. One of the three courses in methods is for example a comparative one (the others being empirical and statistical, and philosophical and historical). The aim here is to give an introduction to the way of looking at problems particular to comparative education by means of concrete examples and tasks, to acquaint students with the most important working aids, to make them conscious of the difficulties of international comparisons and to give some training in the use of international educational terminology. In the elementary seminars and those of the senior stage a choice of various topics on comparative education is made available. In addition it is recommended that students should take part in an excursion to educational institutions either at home or abroad. At the Ph.D. level an educational trip abroad is a compulsory part of the course and at this stage, too, seminars on methodological problems are recommended. Here it should be observed that a good working knowledge of at least two foreign languages is indispensable for this post-graduate course of study.

This concrete example of a new university (cf. Appendix 2) should not be taken as a representative survey of the position of comparative education in teacher training in West Germany, as the conditions prevailing are, in most cases, far less favourable. It should, however, make evident how, given satisfactory conditions and good planning, it is possible to integrate comparative education into the present structure of teacher training. Taken as a whole the chances of extending the scope of comparative education in the academic course of study for teachers are favourable for the 1970's. The dynamic development of the educational system and reforms already started on emphasise the necessity of an international outlook, which corresponds with the world-orientated attitude of the younger generation. Comparative education must now make the most of these favourable conditions and establish a firm position for itself in teacher training by producing sound research results.

APPENDIX 1

Universities and colleges of education with permanent courses in comparative education

Freie Universität Berlin
Pädagogische Hochschule Berlin
Ruhr-Universität Bochum
Pädagogische Hochschule Dortmund
Universität Hamburg
Universität Heidelberg
Pädagogische Hochschule Lüneburg
Universität Marburg
Pädagogische Hochschule Münster
Pädagogische Hochschule Oldenburg

APPENDIX 2

Lehrveranstaltungen des Instituts fur Pädagogik der Ruhr-Universität Bochum zur Vergleichenden Pädagogik seit 1965

(Die Lehrveranstaltungen umfassen Vorlesungen (für Studenten aller Semester), Proseminare (1.-4. Semester), Hauptseminare (ab 5. Semester), Oberseminare (vorwiegend fur Doktoranden).

Diese Regelung gilt seit 1969 nur noch für Studenten, die Pädagogik im Hauptfach studieren; im Rahmen der Lehrerausbildung (Begleitfachstudium der Pädagogik) werden nunmehr Vorlesungen und Seminare angeboten).

1965/66

Schule und Erziehung in Mitteldeutschland (Hauptseminar), Anweiler.

1966

Einführung in die Vergleichende Pädagogik (Vorlesung), Anweiler.

Der Arbeitsschulgedanke bei Dewey, Kerschensteiner und Blonskij (Proseminar), Anweiler/Dilger.

Vergleichende Studien europäischer Schulsysteme der Gegenwart (Hauptseminar), Anweiler.

1966/67

Gesellschaft, Staat und Erziehung in der Sowjetunion (Vorlesung) Answeiler.

Der Rockefeller- und Conant-Bericht (Einführung in die Probleme des modernen Bildungswesens), Proseminar), Anweiler/Kuebart.

Die Pädagogik A.S. Makarenkos (Hauptseminar), Anweiler.

Tradition und Fortschritt im Schulwesen am Beispiel der Niederlande (Oberseminar), Anweiler (mit zehntagiger Exkursion in die Niederlande 1967).

1967

Grundfragen der internationalen pädagogischen Entwicklung (Vorlesung), Anweiler.

Condorcet: Allgemeine Grundlagen des öffentlichen Unterrichtswesens (Proseminar), Kuebart.

Marxismus und Pädagogik (Oberseminar), Anweiler (Fortsetzung 1967/68).

1967/68

Leo Tolstoj: Ausgewählte pädagogische Schriften (Proseminar), Dilger.

Die englische 'comprehensive school' (Proseminar), Kuebart.

Die Pädagogik John Deweys (Hauptseminar), Anweiler.

Erwachsenenbildung und Publizistik in der DDR (Obserseminar), Knoll.

1968

Bildungspolitik und pädagogische Entwicklung in der DDR (Vorlesung), Anweiler.

Staat und Jugend in beiden Teilen Deutschlands (Hauptseminar), Anweiler.

Staat und Jugend in beiden Teilen Deutschlands (Hauptseminar), Anweiler.

Schulreform in Polen (Oberseminar), Anweiler.

1968/69

University extension (oberseminar), Knoll.

1969

Das Bildungswesen in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland und in der DDR in vergleichender Analyse (Vorlesung und Hauptseminar), Anweiler.

Probleme der Gesamtschule in historischer und vergleichender Sicht (Proseminar), Kuehart.

Internationale Tendenzen der Erwachsenenbildung (Hauptseminar), Knoll.

1969/70

Reformprobleme des Bildungswesens in der Bundesrepublik Deutschand im Licht internationaler Entwicklungen (Vorlesung), Anweiler.

Begriff und geschichtliche Entwicklung der polytechnischen Bildung (proseminar), Kuebart.

Differenzierung im Sekundarschulwesen (Seminar), Anweiler.

Bildungstheoretische und Bildungspolitische Ansätze zur Reform des Sekundarschulwesens in Frankreich (Seminar), Sumuth.

1970

Bildungsreformen in Osteuropa und in der DDR (Vorlesung und Hauptseminar), Anweiler.

Experimente kollektiver Erziehung in Israel und in der Sowjetunion (Seminar), Liegle.

Allgemeinbildung und Beufsbildung in der technisch-wissenschaftlichen Revolution (Seminar), Suhmuth.

Ziele, Verlauf und Ergebnisse der schwedischen Schulreform (Oberseminar), Anweiler (mit vierzehntagiger Exkursion nach Schweden im Herbst 1970).

1970/71

Struktur-und Entwicklungsprobleme des Bildungswesens im internationalen Vergleich (Vorlesung und Seminar), Anweiler, Dilger, Liegle, Schäfer, Submuth.

Ansätze und Ergebnisse ausländischer Curriculumforschung. Eine Vergleichsanalyse zwischen Frankreich und England (Hauptseminar), Submuth.

Einführung, in die Methoden der Vergleichenden Pädagogik (Kurs), Dilger.

Methodologische Probleme der Vergleichenden Erziehungswissenschaft (Oberseminar), Anweiler.

THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY TEACHER IN INTERNATIONAL AID PROGRAMMES IN EDUCATION

M. K. Bacchus
University of Alberta

First of all I would like to say that this is not an academic paper in the usual sense i.e., it is not based on the findings of empirically conducted research. In fact it is what could be regarded as a 'position' paper indicating what I consider should be the major role of university teachers in the field of international aid to education. The observations in the paper have come from my own experiences with multi-lateral and bilateral aid programmes in education and out of the discussions which I have had with many people working on such programmes.

External aid to the developing nations including aid to education has been motivated by a number of factors and these are probably as varied as donor countries, donor groups and donor individuals.

However despite this I shall attempt to identify some of the major reasons which have prompted donors to give educational (and other) aid to the developing nations. Secondly since the motivation would affect the nature of the programme I shall attempt to see which of these we as university teachers working on international education programmes need to identify ourselves with and which we should avoid. And thirdly I shall briefly look at the academic concomitance for us as University teachers of identification with programmes which were motivated in the different ways.

(1) First of all there is the basic political motivation of the donor countries (or groups) which see that educational or other types of aid provides a useful medium through which they could extend their spheres of influence. This political element is seen in the aid programmes of most countries e.g. In the United States it was made quite clear when the Government of that country replaced its June 1950 Act for International Development with its Mutual Security Act of 1951. In the first document the purpose of U.S. international aid programmes was

> to encourage the flow of technical knowledge and capital to countries which provide conditions under which such technical assistance and capital can effectively and constructively contribute to raising stands of living.[1]

By 1951 this objective was formally replaced and the purpose of international aid was instead

> to maintain the security and promote the foreign policy of the U.S. by authorizing military economic and technical assistance to friendly countries . . . to develop their resources in the interest of their security and independence and the national interest of the United States.[2]

A somewhat similar shift was noticed more recently in Canadian foreign policy when the Government attempted to redefine its role in international relations. From the "honest broker" concept in the Pearson regime Canadian foreign policy (including its international aid programmes) is now seen as

> an external dimension of domestic policy. Both are aspects of one central national policy--to preserve and strengthen Canada and to preserve and enhance the well being of all Canadians now and for the future.[3]

This political motivation is in many ways quite understandable though some would argue that as far as international aid goes not quite defensible. However if as academicians we are working in the field of international aid to education we should be aware of the constraints imposed on our work by political factors without necessarily accepting them as inevitable. We should insist on formulating what is the best possible programme to meet the needs of the situation in which we are working and if this has to be modified because of existing political constraints we should let the appropriate authorities know in no uncertain terms that the modified programme is not the most effective means of achieving the educational goals implied in the programme.

Unless we do this i.e. constantly attempt to point out the limitations such constraints impose on our work as academicians we are likely to become increasingly an arm of the funding agency engaged in carrying out their projects etc., and ignore one of the main justifications for university involvement in such projects--which is that such involvement is likely to lead to further accumulation of knowledge in the field of international education. For example: Because of the restrictions by some Governments in their international aid programmes foreign students receiving training grants to work on say a Ph.D. programme cannot do their research on their own countries if it means leaving the donor country to carry out the field research project because of the political constraints usually imposed by donor countries as to the place where the training grant must be spent. As university teachers we should constantly attempt to get these obstacles removed rather than just succumb to them--as is too often done.

This political consideration is sometimes carried to the extreme by some donor countries which attempt to use international aid in education for the purpose of supporting a regime which they approve or undermining one with which they disapprove. I myself have had experience of this where a request made to a donor country for aid to a teacher education project was refused on the grounds that no money was available but was countered by a suggestion that the donor country would be willing to build a proposed new university if it was allowed to be responsible for the staffing for at least five years.

As academicians we need to be aware of these political factors in international aid to education so that when we work on such programmes we know in advance what is involved. If the political considerations are so great as to subvert our educational goals then we have the professional responsibility of refusing to participate in such programmes--however attractive the offers might be. The cancellation of the project Camelot in the U.S.A. is a standing tribute to some social scientists who decided that the price to pay for academic work funded for political reasons was too high. As educators in the field of international education unless we take a stand when faced with such alternatives we are likely to jeopardize the whole field of international and comparative education as an area of serious academic study.

A second motivating factor in international aid to education is a genuine desire to help the developing nations. This willingness to help is sometimes seen in altruistic terms--of wanting to lend a helping hand to the economically less fortunate peoples of the world--or in terms of enlightened self-interest--the need to narrow the gap between the rich and the poor as a safeguard to international peace.

Although the relationship between the staff of the donor and that of the recipient countries might be different depending on reasons for this desire to help, the results tend to be at least as far as education is concerned--not very effective. I am sure that we can all point to a number of success stories as far as educational aid is concerned but much of this depends on our interpretation of success, e.g. We might consider an elementary scholl project successful if the enrolment in such schools increased. On the other hand we sometimes forget to look further and see that even with their limited education these pupils have become unfitted for the traditional occupational roles in the society but not able to secure jobs in the modernizing sectors of the economy. If we look at our 'success' stories of international aid-to-education projects in a broader perspective we might need to redefine and delimit our meaning of 'success.'

There are very few serious studies of the long term effectiveness of international aid programmes in education and what in fact most people, including university teachers working in this field have been doing is a straight service function. This I would like to suggest is not sufficient or adequate reason for university involvement in such programmes. Unless we are contributing to the understanding of this whole area it seems to me that we can, as university teachers, hardly justify our participation in such programmes. With this desire to 'help' what we have been doing is to export our own conceptions of education and our own ideas about the essential structure of educational institutions to the developing countries and in fact possibly contributing to the retardation of the developmental process in these countries by creating institutions which might not only be useless but dysfunctional in terms of the goals to which these countries are aspiring.

The third motivational factor is to increase our own understanding of the role of education in the development process and in this way help the developing nations (and incidentally even the developed nations) to solve their own educational problems. While we might all readily agree to this objective the question is "Are we equipped to do it and if not are we being better equipped as a result of our accumulating knowledge in this field?"

In reply to this I would say that we are not yet equipped to do this job and while the knowledge we are accumulating as a result of our experiences is undoubtedly helping some of us to do a better job this knowledge is not being accumulated in any systematic way with the result that new workers in the field have to start almost from scratch in the understanding of the ways in which educational development programmes in the emergent nations can be most effective.

I said that most of us are not as yet technically equipped for the job because although we might have certain skills as a result of our education and training in the developed nations the skills we acquire are often not quite usable in the same way in the developing nations. As one example: Most of us might agree with the following views of the Canadian External Aid Office as to the role of education in the developing nations.

> Education is basic to development. Without schools, the developing countries cannot bring their new generations to the point where advantage can be taken of new techniques. In 1965 . . . the Secretary of State for External Affairs said 'Education is the only instrument that can ensure security and progress for Africa: it is the only force capable of creating a politically and economically sound Africa.'[4]

While we might not accept the dominant role cast for education by the Honourable Minister we probably all share the view that one of the major purposes of education in the emergent nations is to contribute to their rate of economic development. However most of us as educators would have to accept the limitations of our training as far as the field of 'Education for Development' is concerned.

In order to be in a position to aid international development through education we need the ability and competence

(1) to diagnose the problems which adversely affect the contribution which education can make to the development of the country with which we are working.

(2) to devise educational programmes, institutions structures processes etc., which would most effectively help the particular country to meet its educational problems.

My argument is that as educators we do not as yet have the knowledge or the skills to do these jobs effectively. It seems to me that a person working in the area of curriculum planning in a developed country might not as yet be able to work as effectively in the same field in an emergent nation because of the limitations of his skills and our existing lack of knowledge of what type of curriculum etc., can most effectively help the development process in a particular type of country.

The other question is whether we are becoming better equipped over time as a result of our accumulating knowledge to handle this problem. I am sure that some individuals who have been working on these problems can over a period of time increase the effectiveness and efficiency with which they do their jobs. But it seems to me that little systematic accumulation of knowledge is occurring in this field. And this is largely due to the obvious absence of a research dimension in most of the international aid programmes in education--even those in which universities are actively engaged.

The desire for service can almost be described as an occupational psychoses among educators and while this in itself is valuable we sometimes loose sight of our even greater commitment as university teachers to add to the existing corpus of knowledge in the field in which we are working. This points to the need for a research component in all the international aid programmes in which we as university teachers are involved and the need to make this almost a condition of accepting contracts from governmental and other agencies to work on international aid programmes. In fact I would go as far to say that unless this research dimension is included in educational aid programmes in which universities are engaged we are only hiring our services for a fee and not really attempting to perform one of the main functions of a university teacher--which is to add to knowledge and increase our understanding of problems with which we deal.

REFERENCES

1. U. S. Government: Act of International Development in the United States of America, July, 1950.

2. U. S. Government: Mutual Security Act, July, 1951.

3. Government of Canada: External Affairs: Vol. XXII No. 2, February 1970, p. 40.

4. Government of Canada: External Aid Office, The Changing World Around Us, 1966.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE INTERNATIONAL COMPONENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION

William W. Brickman
University of Pennsylvania

La présence aujourd'hui de tant d'érudits distingués, convoqués de nombreux pays, au Congrès Mondial des Sociétés d'Education Comparée fait honneur à la Société Canadienne d'Education Comparée et Internationale, à son fondateur-president, Professeur Joseph Katz, et à l'Université d'Ottawa et sa Faculté d'Education. Cette Assemblee fair honneur également au Centre d'Education Comparée et a son fondateur-directeur, Professeur Anthony Paplauskas-Ramunas.

C'est pour moi, aussi, un grand honneur d'être invité a prononcer le discours d'ouverture de ce Congrès important. Nous nous sommes réunis pour la premiere fois a l'échelle mondiale pour enseigneret apprendre les uns des autres les interêts fondamentals de notre discipline.

Avec la permission de nos amis de l'Université bilangue d'Ottawa, je changerai maintenant de langue et je parlerai avec vous en Anglais de l'évolution historique de la partie internationale en l'éducation des instituteurs et des professeurs.

The expression, "international component in teacher education," is a convenient way of combining comparative teacher education and international teacher education. Obviously, further definitions are called for. By international teacher education is meant the interchange of ideas, individuals, and practices regarding the preparation of teachers and in-service training among the nations. Included within this scope are not only the current activities, but also those of the past. Comparative teacher education refers to the analysis of systems and problems of teacher preparation and in-service training within the socio-cultural-historical context of countries other than one's own. Put into other words, an effort is being made--and urged--to link the programs of teacher education of one country with those of the rest of the world. Such an aim is appropriate, not simply because we are in the International Education Year, or the circumstance of the convocation of the societies dedicated to the advancement of comparative and international education, but rather because of the conviction that the study of a discipline is incomplete, and probably inadequate, if focussed on a single nation. If teachers in the schools and universities are to contribute anything of value to the minds of their students with reference to the values of the interdependence of peoples and the necessity of world understanding, then it seems logical to expect that the educational and professional equipment of the teacher should be rooted, to a reasonable extent, in international knowledge, thought, and values.

Let us explore some aspects of the international dimensions of teacher education, beginning with the historical highlights of international teacher education. Even if the details may not be new, they help build up the background which is essential to a thorough consideration of the role of the comparative and international components in teacher education.

The roots of international education can be found in the ancient world whenever contacts took place between persons of different national, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds.[1] Such meetings may have occurred as a result of war, as during a period of military occupation. More often people of different origins met in the course of commercial activities, religious pilgrimages, missionary work, travel for pleasure or curiosity scientific exploration, diplomatic service, or other occasions. Since the interaction of human beings involves a learning activity and hence education of some sort, then it is legitimate to regard international education as both old and continuous throughout mankind's life on earth.

The movement of persons from one geographical area to another for the purpose of learning or teaching is a more formal and a more easily documented aspect of the history of international education. There are numerous studies and other publications concerning the international exchange of students and teachers in past eras, and even more on the exchanges since 1945.[2] It would be beyond the boundaries of this discussion to focus on the peripatetic pupils, the migrating masters and the gallivanting gurus. To be practical in fulfilling the demands of limited time and auditory span of attention, we should concentrate on the transfer across national boundaries of ideas and persons directly related to teacher education. This means that we would have to forego consideration of such itinerant instructors as Plutarch, Quintilian, and Alcuin.

The *locus classicus* of internationalism on the higher educational level was the medieval European university. Here students from various countries, usually grouped into 'nations' were taught by professors of various national origins. Thus, at the University of Paris in the thirteenth century, students of philosophy and theology were taught by such scholars as St. Bonaventura and St. Thomas Aquinas of Italy; Albert Magnus of Germany; Siger de Brabant, a native of the Low Countries; Boethius of Dacia, the Dane; Michael Scot, Alexander of Hales, John Duns Scotus, Roger Bacon, and William of Occam, of Britain; and Ramon Lull and Cardinal Rodrigo Ximénes de Rada of Spain.[3] These men and others less known prepared the teachers who later staffed the universities of France and other countries. Surely, the university of the Middle Ages can be considered an international institution for the preparation of teachers. Furthermore, we should take account of the fact that the degrees of master and doctor which were conferred by the medieval universities pertained to the teaching function. It will be recalled that in Latin *Magister* and *Doctor* both signified a teacher. Still another point to be considered is the licence of *ius ubique docendi*, authorized by a Papal Bull issued by Pope Gregory IX in 1233 for the University of Toulouse. This mutual recognition of degrees had already been practiced by the Universities of Paris, Bologna, Oxford, and Padua on the basis of custom, but now it received official papal sanction, and all universities made an effort to secure this privilege. With the possession of the *ius ubique docendi*, a graduate had the right to teach everywhere, that is, in all Christian institutions of higher learning without any additional examination.[4]

Although there was a decided emphasis on scholarship and piety in the medieval European universities, it cannot be maintained that students did not learn something about the art of teaching through the observation of their professors. In fact, more can be said about pedagogical consciousness in higher education during the Middle Ages. A Vatican manuscript which is representative of the educational thought and work of the fourteenth century includes a section on the "eight praiseworthy traits" which should characterize the "master of arts occupying chair in authentic schools and especially in Paris": preparation of lectures, maintaining the sequence of lectures without interruption, and so on. In fact, the third point is reminiscent of later psychological and inductive methods of instruction:

> . . . the best arrangement is to begin with the easier points and those better known to us and so proceed to those which are the more difficult and occult. Wherefore that teaching is not best arranged which proceeds from things which are first in the order of nature to those which follow them, as Plato did, but rather the Aristotelian method is to be followed going from posteriors according to nature to priors.[5]

It is not too much to infer that some pedagogical training was obtained by the medieval students, even if there were no courses labeled "Paedagogia" or "Didactica." There are grounds for believing that the future professors learned, without the benefit of a course identified as "Historia Universitatis," about the historical origins and privileges of the higher educational institutions. Nor would it be stretching the point too thinly if we suggest that, because of the multinational composition of student bodies and the custom of *peregrinatio paedagogica*, many learned something of *educatio comparativa* and *educatio internationalis*. In brief, there seems to be a case of some sort for considering the European universities of the Middle Ages as institutions of international teacher education. True, the underlying conscious aim of these international activities may have been less that of mutual understanding and harmony among equal peoples than that of unifying the European Christianity and extending the faith to other geographical areas. None the less, there can be little doubt that the period was featured by some advance in international educational thought and action which may have had an influence on better relations among human beings.

The little case study of the medieval university as a locale and source of international teacher education is illustrative of what might be done with an interpretative analysis of historical institutions. With more space at one's disposal, there is a possibility of demonstrating internationalism in the education of teachers in such institutions as the University of Nalanda in India,[6] the University of Athens,[7] and the University of Al-Azhar in Egypt.[8] A closer look at the educational activities in other areas, such as China and Judea in both the ancient and medieval periods, may disclose more international teacher education than is usually suspected. But such inquiries must be left for another time. At most, what we can do at this point is raise the question and illustrate with a model, to use the terminology of some of the current practitioners of the art of educational reflection.

We can now proceed to the Age of the Renaissance in Western Europe. Generally speaking, the international educational currents flowed from Byzantium to Italy, and thence to Central and Northern Europe. There were also movements from Byzantium to Russia prior to and during the Renaissance, and from Italy to Russia in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and even later centuries, at which time cultural and educational influences began to flow from Western and Central Europe to Russia. In all these movements of men and minds, the teaching process was involved in a significant way. Hence, it is fitting to propose the hypothesis of that international teacher education was going on during the Renaissance era.

There are perhaps few more dramatic sequences of events in the history of education than the systematic reintroduction of the Greek language and learning during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. From 1396 - 1400, the dates of the appointment of the teacher-diplomat Manuel Chrysoloras as professor of Greek at the University of Florence, and from 1403 - 1408, when Guarino da Verona learned Greek under him in Constantinople,[9] the traffic in Greek manuscripts and masters between Byzantium and Italy increased considerably. Chrysoloras also taught at Bologna, Pavia, and Rome, and many of his students carried on his teachings. Among the most famous and influential were Guarino da Verona, professor of Greek at the University of Forrara, whose disciple, Vittorino da Feltre, continued the Hellenic tradition at his renowned Casa Giocosa School at Mantua. The impact of Chrysoloras as a teacher of teachers was also felt through the educational writings of two generations of students. In an educational treatise which reflected the views of his father, Battista Guarino, also a Greek scholar, stated his definite " . . . conviction that without a knowledge of Greek Latin scholarship itself, is, in any real sense impossible."[10] The humanist Pietro Paolo Vergerio, who studied under Chrysoloras at Florence and later taught there, complained about the decline of the Greek learning in Italy in his work on liberal studies. "It is hard that no slight portion of the history of Rome is only to be known through the labours of one writing in the Greek language . . . [the] noble tongue."[11] One senses that this scholar was not content merely to wring his hands, but was determined to keep Greek alive.

The significance of Chrysoloras for the development of humanistic scholarship was pointed up in the testimony of his student, Leonardo Bruni translator of Plato, Aristotle, Plutarch, and other Greek thinkers. In his commentary written in his old age, upon the events of 1378 - 1440, Bruni who was a prominent governmental official in Florence and an historian, called attention to the fact thatGreek literature had fallen into disuse for seven hundred years prior to the arrival of Chrysoloras in Italy during the last decade of the fourteenth century. He went on to describe, how as a young student in Florence, he guided and counseled himself away from the study of civil law, of which there were many practitioners, to that of the language of Homer, Plato, Demosthenes, and other eminent men of letters and thought of ancient Hellas. This art of auto-advisement enabled him to persuade himself that here was a rare opportunity of learning under the descendant of these great men, "unus solusque litterarum graecarum Doctor" (the one and only scholar of Greek literature), and thereby gaining not merely the rewards of knowledge, but also the benefits of fame and satisfaction.[12] Bruni was convinced by the brilliance of his argumentation, and accordingly became a student of Greek.

> I surrendered myself to Chrysoloras, studying with such great eagerness that what I had learned while alert during the day continued to move in my mind at night even while asleep.[13]

Allowing for rhetoric, it seems clear that Chrysoloras' teaching helped Bruni attain excellence in Greek. His translations into Latin of the writings of Plato, Aristotle, Demosthenes, and Plutarch exerted a considerable effect on the study of the Greek language and ideas for some time. Bruni did not become a professor of Greek, and, thus, did not prepare teachers. However, his translations opened the treasures of Greek culture to those who did not have an opportunity to learn the original language.

Regretfully, we cannot at this point investigate the careers and influences of the Byzantine teachers of Greek in Italy and elsewhere.[14] However, even at the risk of criticism that the mention of persons constitutes a catalogue rather than an historical narrative, several notable names will be cited. Andronikos Callistos of Constantinople became professor of Greek at Bologna, Rome, and Florence, and also promoted its learning and study in France, Spain,[15] and England. Theodoros Gaza, professor at Ferrara and Rome, instructed and inspired Dutch-born Roelof Huysman (better known as Rudolphus Agricola), who carried on the classical tradition at the University of Heidelberg. Another Byzantine-Italian-German scholarly axis was the influence of Joannes Argyropoulos, professor of Greek at Florence, Padua, and Rome, upon Johann Reuchlin, native of Pforzheim. The German scholar, whose initial instruction in Greek was in Paris and Basel, taught Latin, Greek, and Hebrew at Poitiers, Orleans, Basel, Tübingen, Ingolstadt, and Heidelberg. Interestingly, Reuchlin's early teachers of Greek were Gregorio Tifernas da Cittadi Castello, who had lived in Greece; Georgios Hermonymos, the Spartan "incompetent" who also taught Erasmus and Guillaume Bude; and Johan Wessel, the Dutch "lux mundi," whose other pupils included Rudolphus Agricola.[16]

Another luminary was Demetrios Chalcondyles, professor of Greek at the Universities of Perugia, Padua, Florence, and Milan. His protégé, Janus Lascaris of Constantinople, taught Greek to the Cretan, Marcus Musurus, editor of Greek texts for the Aldine Press in Venice, and Professor at Padua. Because of Musurus' fame as a teacher of Greek, students from various parts of Italy, as well as from other countries, flocked to his classes. His student John Conon became a pioneer of Greek studies in Germany, while Girolamo Aleandro performed a similar function in France. If Erasmus was not actually enrolled in the courses of Musurus, he consulted him on problems of interpreting difficult Greek texts and, in all probability, audited some of his lectures. In fact, the influence of the teaching of Musurus has been regarded as almost comparable to the impact of the earlier Chrysoloras and the later Guarino da Verona.[17] On the basis of these and later data, it is hardly an exaggeration to consider the Greek-speaking immigrant scholars as the teachers of teachers, for two generations at least, of the Greek language, literature, and thought throughout Europe. Even a marginal relationship, such as those between Erasmus and his Greek instructors in Paris and Italy, was productive of impacts on the furthering of Greek in European culture and education.[18]

It is tempting to venture into other historical eras and areas, but such excursions must wait for other occasions. All we can do is to suggest and hint at the possibilities of further research into the history of international teacher education. During the Reformation, scholars, such as Johann Bugenhagen, the German, who helped to transform the instruction in the University of Copenhagen, were involved in teacher education on an international level. St. Peter Canisius, the Dutch Jesuit, was instrumental in changing universities in Bavaria. In both these, and in other instances, change was brought about by the interaction of a master teacher from one country upon teachers and students of other nations. The members of the Society of Jesus, as an international group of highly trained, thoroughly educated Catholic priests, carried education ideas to the various European countries, to Africa, Asia and the Americas. The opening of the Collegium Romanum, the Collegium Germanicum, and other colleges with specially trained personnel as instructors was one basic function of the Society in regaining lost territories for Roman Catholicism. Further, with the various preliminary plans leading up to the influential "Ratio Studiorum of 1599," all of them prepared and reviewed by international teams, the Jesuits exported teachers and methods to schools all over the world.[19] During the late seventeenth century, the inauguration of the teacher training program by the Catholic order of the Brothers of the Christian Schools under St. Jean Baptiste de la Salle was the first step in the export of prepared teachers to other continents.[20] The Christian Brothers and other religious orders of men and women teachers thus contributed to the development of international teacher education.

For a representative of the seventeenth century, we might turn to August Hermann Francke, Pietistic preparer of pedagogues and preachers, Orientalist, Transatlantic correspondent, and benefactor of the poor and the orphaned. Beginning with his Seminarium Praeceptorum in 1696 and the Seminarium Selectum Praeceptorum in 1707, he trained teachers to function effectively in the classroom and to carry forth his religious principles wither they went to teach and to train teachers. The sum total of Francke's educational and missionary activity was "a world-wide influence."[21] Of particular interest to teacher education was Francke's Collegium Orientale, founded in 1702, for the preparation of university professors and secondary school teachers of Hebrew and other Oriental languages. One purpose of this institution was to train young people for foreign service as missionaries.[22] There was one more project designed for international teacher education, the Seminarium Nationum, which, however, was never put into operation. This Seminarium was to have taught young persons of distant, undoubtedly underdeveloped, countries so that they could return as teachers to combat pagan ideas and practices.[23]

The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were marked by the international demand for teachers who were adept at practising new methods. The work of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi in Switzerland was observed by educations from many countries. The resultant books and reports, whether on the schools of the Swiss reformer or on the schools of other countries, based on their principles, led to the establishment of normal schools for the training of teachers in the Pestalozzian spirit. The classic report of this type, of course, was the one on Germany by Cousin[24] which was soon translated into English and affected greatly American opinion regarding teacher education.[25] Without going into detail, it is possible to think of the international impact of the monitorial teaching system of Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster, and of the kindergarten training in accordance with the thought and practice of Friedrich Froebel. Also pertinent is the influence in many countries of the curriculum and methodology of Johann Friedrich Herbart. In the United States, leading educators, such as Charles A. McMurry, introduced Herbartian ideas which they had learned in German universities. To some extent, the reverence for the Herbart and his educational thought was instrumental in the formation in 1895 of the National Herbart Society for the Scientific Study of Education. Not to be overlooked is the preparation of G. Stanley Hall at the University of Leipzig for his future career as professor and teacher of professors of educational, child, and adolescent psychology.

The incidence of international teacher education became rather common during the nineteenth century. At the international exposition at Philadelphia, in 1876, on the occasion of the centenary of independence in the United States, such subjects as methods of instruction and the training of teachers came under discussion, while at the Chicago exposition of 1893, which commemorated the eventful discovery by Columbus, the assembled educators considered several educational questions, including school supervision and teacher training.[26] Teachers of various countries met to discuss problems of specialized interest under the auspices of such organizations as the International Kindergarten Union, founded in 1873, and the Bureau International des Ecoles Nouvelles, established in 1899 to promote the principles of the New School Movement of Cecil Reddie, J. H. Badley, Hermann Lietz, Georges Bertier, and Edmond Demolino.[27]

The pace quickened in the twentieth century as a result of the growth of newer and more rapid methods of transportation and communication, as well as by the development of considerable pressure for international peace and understanding to prevent the recurrence of the most devastating wars in history. This is the century of the League of Nations and the United Nations, both of them working toward the realization of international cooperation in all affairs, including culture and education. Early in the century began the arrangements for the exchange of professors, such as those made by the Universities of Berlin and Paris with Harvard and Columbia.[28] It is reasonable to suppose that, to some extent at least, the experience of teaching abroad would broaden the background of the professor and possibly improve his ability as a teacher. This reasoning should also apply to the interchange of secondary school teachers, which developed markedly since World War II.

The subject of international teacher education might also embrace the federations of teachers' associations which represent many nations. Among such groups were the Bureau International des Associations d'Instituteurs (1905 - 1914) for primary school teachers and the Bureau International des Federations Nationales du Personnel de l'Enseignement Secondaire Public, founded in 1912 by the teachers of Belgium, France, and the Netherlands.[29] The World Organization of the Teaching Profession, formed in 1923 together with other international groups, became the World Federation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession in 1952. The political tensions between the Communist and the non-Communist world following World War II were instrumental in the establishment of the World Federation of Teachers' Unions, with headquarters in Prague, which gives evidence of subscribing to Markist-Leninist principles. Mention should be made of the International Council on Education for Teaching, which was founded in 1958 to unite organizations, institutions, and individuals concerned with the improvement of pre-service and in-service teacher education all over the globe. Finally, it is appropriate to call attention to the present World Congress of Comparative Education Societies, which combines for the first time the efforts of the teachers and research workers of the national and regional groups for the advancement of the discipline and, ultimately, for the betterment of teacher education and of education in general.

Of great significance for international teacher education is the Teachers College of Columbia University and the University of London Institute of Education, to choose the two largest and consistently most active institutions for teacher education. Through their courses for foreign students and for the preparation of teachers for countries throughout the world, these schools made a profound contribution to strengthening the standards of teaching everywhere. In addition, the separate yearbooks of the two institutions, and more recently their jointly edited World Year Book of Education, represent resources of great value for specialists of both comparative and international education. If other institutions, associations, and individuals have not been mentioned, it is only because we are presenting a sketchy survey, rather than a definitive monograph.

It is now time to proceed to the history of comparative teacher education. Once more, it is necessary to apologize for the thinness of the presentation. However, we hope for other opportunities to explore this topic in greater depth.

Some difficulty can be experienced in trying to find a starting point. No doubt, observations of teachers, their ability and training have appeared from time to time in the travel reports and other writings on foreign education from about the sixteenth century onward. Some sort of beginning might be made with the questionnaire devised in 1789 by Count Leopold Berchtold for travelers to other countries. Among the educational matters to be looked into by the perceptive traveler, Berchtold suggested a comparison and contrast of the current method of "Bringing up children" with that of the past and the qualifications, salaries and conditions of appointment and tenure of teachers and professors.[30] That the celebrated anc classical study of Marc-Antoine Jullien on comparative education, published during 1816 - 1817, paid attention to teachers need occasion no surprise. His suggested Institute Normals d'Education for the preparation of good teachers in several countries " . . . pourraient as procurer des secours mutuels, et offriraient des points de comparaison tres-utiles."[31] In one breath, therefore, we have the idea of international and comparative teacher education. Moreover, his idea of a general journal of education in several languages was designed to serve similar purposes. Jullien's famous series of questions, inspired by Berchtold, as Fraser has pointed out, included a section on "education normale," and covered details regarding primary school directors and teachers, methods of teaching, and miscellaneous matters related to teachers and instruction.[32] The ideas of Jullien may have vegetated in Europe, as Pedro Roseló has been insisting, until the closing decades of the nineteenth century, but they migrated Westward and found their way to the pages of William Russell's American Journal of Education.[33] The teachers of the early American republic not only had access to the comparative element in education, but also to articles on Pestalozzi and Fellenberg, through the medium of this pioneering periodical.

The fashion of pedagogical travel which characterized the era of political change after the Napoleonic period led to the publication of many reports on national school systems. A number of these focused attention on teacher training or made at least some extended mention of teachers' seminaries. Thus, Henry Edwin Dwight, son of President Timothy Dwight of Yale College, and a former student at the University of Berlin, included the subject of professors and teachers in the report of his travels in Germany in 1825-26. His admiration for the Prussian teachers' seminaries was such that he felt impelled to recommend such institutions to his fellow-countrymen, so that the teaching in America could become "a distinct profession." With such seminaries, ". . . by increasing the compensation of the instructers [sic] we might easily persuade them to make it [teaching] the employment of their lives."[34] We might take note of the fact that Dwight compared the background and status of university professors and school teachers in both countries.

The classic paean to pedagogical training is found in Victor Cousin's famous report to the Ministry of Public Instruction and Ecclesiastical Affairs of France concerning the Prussian educational system. An alumnus and subsequent director of the Ecole Normale Supérieure, professor of philosophy at the Sorbonne, member of the Conseil de L'Instruction Publique, Cousin had visited Germany twice prior to his official mission. During his first trip, in 1817, Cousin studied Kant, Fichte, Hegel, and other German philosophers; during the second, in 1824-25, he studied the inside of a Berlin jail, as a political prisoner to be sure, and, as a free and untrammeled thinker, brought along Hegelianism when he returned to France. The trip in 1831, however, proved to be satisfying on all counts, a pleasure revealed in his account. The first report, published in 1832,[35] dealt at length with teacher training within the context of the Prussian and German educational system. Part one, the shorter of the two, described primary, secondary, and higher education, mainly in Saxony. The second part, which was devoted to Prussia, concentrated on primary education and on teacher preparation.[36] Cousin introduced this section with the judgment regarding the excellence of the Prussian normal schools.[37] On the basis of his observations and the documents included in his report, Cousin submitted his analysis, reflections, and recommendations to the minister. One important conclusion was "une école normale, c'est son directeur."[38] That is to say, the head of a teachers' seminary should set an example, on the basis of his varied experience and ability, for the instructors. One can hear the echo of Cousin in the famous slogan publicized by Charles Brooks in Massachusetts, "As is the teacher so is the school."[39]

Cousin appreciated the practices of the German teacher training system, such as the year of apprenticeship prior to the appointment as a full-fledged teacher, in-service summer courses for teachers and systematic supervision. His admiration was expressed constantly throughout the report. In his concluding paragraphs, he exhorted the minister to learn from the example of Germany, and particularly from Prussia, without regard for national rivalries or sensitivity.

> La vraie grandeur d'un people ne consiste pas à ne rien imiter dans les autres, mais à emprunter par-tout ce qui est bien et à le perfectionner en so l'appropriant.[40]

Since France already imitated England in material things, it should not hesitate to borrow cultural ideas from "la bonne, . . . la l'honnête, . . . la pieuse, . . . la savante Allemagne."[41]

The third report of Cousin, issued in 1837, again presented documents and recommendations, but this time with reference to secondary teacher education in Prussia.[42] In his interpretation, he tried to consider as all good comparative educationists do, the contexts of the thought and practices of the foreign school system. Thus, the remark

> Le concours de l'agrégation manque à la Prusse; il n'est pas dans les moeurs allemandes; il est remplacé par les examens admirablement gradués, et par la belle institution de ces jeunes candidats qui pendant une année au moins travaillent comme adjoints dans les gymnases, avant d'être nommes professeurs. Le concours d'agrégation est merveilleusement approprié à nos moeurs; et pris en lui-même, autant il est absurde entre des hommes qui doivent avoir fait leur preuves, autant il sied entre jeunes gens.[43]

The final paragraph of Cousin's report began with the statement: "Voilà le système général d'instruction publique que je souhaite à mon pays."[44] Specifically from the standpoint of teacher training, he called for primary normal school in each *commune* and a secondary normal school in every *arrondissement*. As he stated in the introduction to his 1831 report, whenever he looked at Germany, he always thought of France.[45]

As every student of the history of American education knows, the English translation of Cousin's report was reprinted by order of the Massachusetts, New York, and other legislatures, and exercised influence on education in the United States during the nineteenth century.[46] Official reports concerning education, including teacher training, were made in 1837 to the Ohio legislative by Calvin Ellis Stowe,[47] former professor of languages at Dartmouth College and, at the time of his European trip, professor of Biblical literature at the Lane Theological Seminary in Cincinnati; and in 1839 to the Virginia legislature by Benjamin Mosby Smith, instructor and future professor of Oriental literature at the Union Theological Seminary in Richmond.[48] In his report, Stowe argued for educational change on the basis of his having observed excellence in Europe:

> If it can be done in Europe, I believe it can be done in the United States; if it can be done in Prussia, I know it can be done in Ohio.[49]

So far as teacher training was concerned, Stowe was convinced that

> No country has ever been so well supplied with competent teachers as Prussia at the present moment, and yet, thirty years ago, the mass of schoolteachers there was probably below the present average standard of New England and Ohio.[50]

The reason for the change in Prussia, argued the American analyst, was "obviously, and by universal acknowledgement, the establishment of seminaries for the education of teachers."[51]

Owing to the shortage of time and space, we cannot afford the luxury, desirable and necessary as it is, to analyze at length other reports on foreign teacher training. Accordingly, we shall make but brief mention of several more examples. Professor Bache furnished first-hand information to American educators on the preparation of primary school teachers in Prussia, Saxony, the Netherlands, France, and Switzerland, and on the Ecole Normale Supêrieure in Paris.[52] The influential and controversial report of Horace Mann, published in 1844, with particular reference to Prussian teachers' seminaries,[53] is too well known to require further comment at this time. Drawing upon Cousin, Mann, and others, as well as on his own observations abroad and analysis, Egerton Ryerson, chief superintendent of schools for Upper Canada, reported to his Legislative Assembly in 1847 on the necessity of teacher training for any good school system.[54]

Educational literature read by teachers, principals, and others added to knowledge about comparative teacher education by including articles on education abroad, including the preparation and status of teachers. The major journals of this type in America were William Russell's American Journal of Education (1826-1831), William C. Woodbridge's American Annals of Education and Instruction (1830-1837), Henry Barnard's Connecticut Common School Journal (1838-1842) and Journal of Rhode Island Institute of Instruction (1845-1849), and Horace Mann's Common School Journal of Massachusetts (1839-1848). The outstanding periodical, as is well known, was Henry Barnard's American Journal of Education (1855-1881).[55] Of great value was Barnard's comprehensive history and contemporary analysis of primary teacher training in the United States, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, the Netherlands, France, Ireland, England, and Scotland.[56]

The treatment of the nineteenth century, however brief, cannot be concluded without reference to the comments on the teacher preparation in Matthew Arnold's "Schools and Universities on the Continent" (1868, 1882). The United States Bureau of Education, headed since 1867 by such internationalists as Henry Barnard, John Eaton, and William Torrey Harris, contributed studies and information on developments in teacher training and other phases of education in countries all over the globe. Also of great significance in this respect were the volumes published during the directorship of Sir Michael Sadler, the famous comparative educator, of the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports of England's Education Department (1894-1903). Finally, at the end of the century, the dean of the new Teachers College, Columbia University, James E. Russell, devoted two chapters on teacher education and status in his detailed analysis of German secondary education.[57]

It is important to note that Sadler was a source of inspiration for the later development of Isaac Leon Kandel and Peter Sandiford as comparative educators in the United States and Canada, respectively.[58] Dean Russell, furthermore, encouraged Paul Monroe, Dr. Kandel, and others in the establishment of the International Institute at Teachers College and in generally making that institution a--perhaps the--leading center for the study and research in comparative education during the first three or four decades of the twentieth century. Both Kandel and Sandiford wrote Ph.D. dissertations on European teacher education.[59] Dr. Kandel, who edited Teachers' College "Educational Yearbook" for two decades (1924-1944), included a sizable section on the problem of teacher training in Western Europe and the United States (1927), on teachers' associations (1955), and on teacher preparation in Germany, England, and the United States. And while on the subject of yearbooks, we should mention the series now called the "World Year Book of Education," edited jointly by the University of London Institute of Education and Teachers College of Columbia University. The 1953 edition of this valuable reference work discussed the status and position of teachers in the various parts of the world, while the 1963 volume treated similarly the education and training of teachers.

Again, we must unavoidably breeze through the literature on comparative teacher education of the twentieth century. Some of the studies, such as those by Luckey, Brown, and Learned, concentrated on a single country, generally on Germany.[60] Later works, during the interbellum period analyzed England, France, Italy, Germany, Sweden, and the U.S.S.R.[61] The reports issued by the International Bureau of Education in 1935, 1937, 1939, and in the 1950's, on the training and status of primary and secondary school teachers covered wider territory.

Information and analysis became even more abundant after World War II. The advent of Unesco brought into being several monographs and reports on comparative teacher education.[62] In addition, contributions were made by other inter-governmental, governmental, and nongovernmental organizations in Europe and North America.[63] Also to be considered are such periodicals as Scientia Paedogogica, published since 1955 by the International Secretariat for Teaching Educational Sciences in Ghent; Teacher Education, issued since 1959 by the University of London Institute of Education; and Teachers of the World, a recent journal which serves as the organ of the World Federation of Teachers' Unions. The predecessor conferences of the Comparative and International Education Society were responsible for two publications on the relationship of comparative education to teacher education and on the teaching of comparative education.[64] Not to be overlooked are the efforts at private enterprise in comparative teacher education, including the writings by Kandel and Koerner.[65] A comprehensive bibliography of comparative teacher education, which might comprise general works, monographs, reports, journals, bibliographies, and other types of materials remains to be prepared.

With the historical background behind us, it is time to sum up the values of comparative and international education in relation to the preservice and in-service preparation of teachers and, hopefully, administrators. These can be discerned in the historical accounts which have just been sketched. Briefly, a teacher is broadened by a knowledge of other systems of education, including their history and problems, and of their relationship both to his own national system and among themselves. He tends to become more comprehending of other cultures and their representatives, of the educational and cultural interdependence of nations. Once he appreciates the principles of nationalism and internationalism, he is in a position to try to develop, in his pupils, knowledge and understanding of other national and ethnic groups. Let us not forget, furthermore, that the discipline of comparative and international education offers teachers sound scholarly knowledge which is not only valuable in itself, but is also helpful as content for inclusion in the instruction of pupils.

In conclusion, allow me to restate, with some adaptation, from a recent editorial of mine.[66]

The designation of 1970 by the General Assembly of the United Nations as "an International Education Year," together with the celebration of the tercentenary of the death of Jan Amos Comenius (the "Magister Nationum"), plus the 1969 commemoration of Erasnus, constitute recognition of the living link between the school and world society in the quest for the preservation of man. As specified by the resolution of Unesco, one of the underlying concepts of the International Education Year is the "promotion of ethical principles in education, especially through the moral and civic education of youth, with a view to promoting international understanding and peace." The eight objectives proposed for the observance of IEY by the nations and by the various types of international organizations include the "pre-service and in-service training of teachers." By a process of juxtaposition of phraseology, it is possible to credit Unesco with the idea of utilizing its publicity resources to stress the improvement and intersification of inculcating the idea of international understanding through teacher education, even if there is no direct statement to this effect.

If the teaching of human values and ethics across national frontiers is a significant aim of education, then it follows that the preparation of prospective and practicing teachers is likewise of crucial importance. One can recall the efforts of yesteryear—the yearbooks, textbooks, and other publications to guide the teacher in the principles and practices of teaching international goodwill; the courses offered by colleges and boards of education; the perennial conferences dedicated to this theme; the international exchanges of teachers, pupils, books, and teaching materials; and the many other activities. No doubt, these have been beneficial for the most part. On the whole, however, one gets the impression that the record of teacher education in the area of international studies has been rather uneven and spotty.

Of course, one quick response to a charge of relative ineffectiveness is the lack of funds, especially since the International Education Act of 1966 has not been supported financially by the U. S. Congress. Without discounting the value of money in the promotion of internationalism, it does not take too much imagination to realize that the values of international education can be realized in a meaningful measure with a modest expenditure, mainly through the interaction of teacher and pupil in the classroom.

A teacher with a proper preparation in the pertinent subject matter can bring information and ideas to the attention of pupils, so as to emphasize such values as the worthwhileness of each man, the interdependence of cultures, and the desirability of world peace. Such a teacher needs a background of study in higher and professional education, prior to and during the exercise of his art, which will enable him to function as an inspirer and interpreter of international ideals among children and youth. What the IEY can do is to focus on the learning needs of the teacher in the expectation and hope that he is the key person in the process of learning about human relations which transcent geographical frontiers.

To begin with, it is essential to highlight internationalism wherever it is logical in the curriculum of higher education. One can assert with confidence that there is no subject in the university which does not contain a component of internationalism. The study of the national language, literature, culture, and history, if carried on with thoroughness and objectivity, will uncover numerous references to cross-national and cross-cultural origins and influences. An internationally-oriented course of study in the humanities, natural sciences, and social fields, then, is the foundation stone in the preparation of the internationally informed and conscious teacher.

The international element probably has been less prominent in professional teacher education than in the general studies program. The rising interest in comparative education and in aid to developing nations has modified the picture somewhat. However, there are still too few professors who are competent to teach general and specialized courses in the history of world education. There are even fewer who can teach the philosophy of education in a broader than national frame of reference.

A massive effort should be made during the IEY to broaden and to intensify the teaching of internationalism throughout the curriculum of the pre-service teacher, as well as to introduce the international aspect into graduate courses and seminars for experienced teachers. Accordingly, there will be more opportunities for learning about the history and philosophy of education in an international context. Courses in the history of U. S. education certainly can include content on the contributions by other countries to American educational ideas and practices, the problems and solutions involved in the teaching of minority ethnic and cultural groups, and the impact and reputation of American education in other countries. There does not seem to be any logical reason for overlooking the international and intercultural aspects of other subjects in the teacher education curriculum--theory and methodology. Observation and practice in a school with a pupil population of varied national origins can also lead to an appreciation of international values. In short, it is possible to take note of internationalism in all areas of learning in the program of preparing or deepening the education of teachers.

In addition to the cognitive content and the positive attitude toward teaching international ideals, it is necessary for the teacher to continue his *education permanente* all through his career. This he can do through regular reading, exchange of correspondence and literature with colleagues in other countries, and professionally purposeful trips at financially feasible intervals. These and other activities will add to his ability to advance international education.

The International Education Year of 1970 is a promising step in a desirable direction. However, for the welfare of mankind, it is required to make of every year an International Education Year. During 1970, then, those engaged in the education of teachers should concentrate on the revitalization of the international spirit in the curriculum of those teaching or preparing to teach on all levels. This process should then continue after the fanfare of the IEY has died down.

The traditional pedagogical maxim popularized by Charles Brooks states that the nature of the school depends upon the nature of the teacher. Let the profession determine that, insofar as international education is concerned, it will apply all its energies to make true the principle of "As is the teacher, so is the pupil." The comparative and international dimensions of teacher education can do much to fulfill this aim.

WILLIAM W. BRICKMAN - Graduate School of Education, University of Pennsylvania.
- Editor, *School and Society*.

FOOTNOTES

[1] For an overview of the historical development of international education from antiquity to the late 1950's, see William W. Brickman, "Introduction to the History of International Relations in Higher Education" (New York, 1960).

[2] For example, see Gray C. Boyce, "The English-German Nation at the University of Paris during the Middle Ages" (Bruges; Saint Catherine Press, 1927); and Henrich Pfeiffer, "Ausländische Studenten an den wissenschaftlichen Hochschulen in der Bundesrepublik and West Berlin. 1951-1961." (Wiesbaden: Steiner, 1962).

[3] Maurice de Wulf, "Philosophy and Civilization in the Middle Ages." (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1922), p. 73.

[4] Heinrich Denifle, "Die Entstehung der Universitäten des Mittelalters bis 1400" (Berlin: Weidmann, 1885), pp. 20-23, 772-774; Hastings Rashdall, "The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages, new edition, Volume I, (London: Oxford University Press, 1936), p. 9; Charles Thurot, "De l'organisation de l'enseignement dans l'Université de Paris, au Moyen-âge" (Paris, 1850), p. 50.

[5] Vatican Palatine Latin MS 1252, fols.99r-109v, chapter 5, as translated in Lynn Thorndike, "University Records and Life in the Middle Ages" (New York: Columbia University Press, 1944), p. 220.

FOOTNOTES (Continued)

[6] Hasmukh D. Sankalia, "The University of Nalanda" (Madras: Paul, 1934).

[7] John W. H. Walden, "The Universities of Ancient Greece," (New York: Scribner, 1909); W. W. Capes, "University life in Ancient Athens" (London: Longmans Green, 1877).

[8] Bayard Dodge, "Al-Azhar: A Millenium of Muslim Learning" (Washington: Middle East Institute, 1961).

[9] John E. Sandys, "A History of Classical Scholarship," Vol. II (Cambridge: University Press, 1905), pp. 19, 49.

[10] Battista Guarino, "De ordine decendi et studendi," in William H. Woodward, "Vittorino da Feltre and Other Humanist Educators" (Cambridge: University Press, 1897), p. 166.

[11] Petrus Paulus Vergerius, "De ingenuis moribus," in Woodward, *ibid.*, p. 106.

[12] Leonardo Bruni, "Rerum suo tempore gestarum commentarius (AA.1378-1440)," edited by Carmine di Pierro (Bologna: Zanichelli, n.d.), p. 431. This is a new edition of the text in Muratori's "Rerum Italicarum scriptores," Vol. XIX, Part III.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 432. Translation by the present writer. Other English translations are in Ferdinand Schevill, "The First Century of Italian Humanism" (N.Y.: Crofts, 1928), pp. 44-45; and in Henry S. Lucas, "The Renaissance and the Reformation" (N.Y.: Harper, 1934), p. 212. An Italian translation is given in Eugenio Garin " 'educazione in Europa (1400-1600): Problemi i programmi" (Bari: Laterza, 1957), p. 99.

[14] Considerable detail may be found in Sandys, *op. cit.*: Georg Voigt, "Die Wiederbelebung des classischen Alterthums oder das erste Jahrhundert des Humanismus," second edition, 2 vols. (Berlin: Reimer, 1880-81); Deno J. Geanakoploa, "Greek Scholars in Venice: Studies in the Dissemination of Greek Learning from Byzantium to Western Europe" (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 1962); *et al.* See also V. M. Geerts, "De humanistische paedagogiek in Italie: Tijdens de vroeg-Renaissance" (Louvain: Leuvense Universitaire Vitgaven, (1953)), pp. 75-76; Voigt, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, pp. 246-362; R. Weiss, "Humanism in England during the Fifteenth Century," second edition, (Oxford: Blackwell, 1957).

[15] At Bologna, Callistos taught Antonio de Lebrija of the University of Salamanca, who used his knowledge of Greek in working on the Complutensian Polyglot Bible in Alcalá. Geanakoplos, *op. cit.*, p. 273, note 75.

[16] Sandys, *op. cit.*, pp. 169, 211, 256-57.

[17] Geanakoplos, *op. cit.*, pp. 135-137, and Chapter 5 *passim*.

[18] *Ibid.*, pp. 256-278.

[19] G. M. Pachtler, S. J., editor, "Ratio Studiorum et Institutiones Scholasticae Societatis Jesu per Germaniam olim vigentes," Vol. I, "Momumenta Germanise Paedagogica, Vol. II, (Berlin: Hofmann, 1887), pp. 368-401; *ibid.*, Vol. II, "Momumenta Germaniae Paedagogica," Vol. V (Berlin: Hofmann, 1887), pp. 25-30; Ladislavs Lukacs, S.I. editor, "Momumenta Paedagogica Societatis Iesu," Vol. I, "Momumenta Historica Societatis Iesu", Vol. 92 (Rome: Momumenta Historica Iesu, (1965)), pp. 106-129; Allan P. Farrell, S.J., "The Jesuit Code of Liberal Education: Development and Scope of the Ratio Studiorum" (Milwaukee: Bruce, 1938), pp. 431-435; Georg Mertz, "Die Pädagogik der Jesuiten" (Heidelberg: Winter, 1898), pp. 33-35; Thomas Hughes, S. J., "Loyola and the Educational System of the Jesuits" (New York: Scribner, 1892), pp. 143-155; Martin P. Harney, S. J., "The Jesuits in History" (Chicago, Loyola University Press, 1962), pp. 80-81, 174-258; and Jerome V. Jacobsen, S. J., "Educational Foundations of the Jesuits in Sixteenth-Century New Spain" (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1938).

[20] Edward A. Fitzpatrick, "La Salle: Patron of all Teachers," (Milwaukee, Wis: Bruce, 1951); and W. J. Battersby, "De La Salle: A Pioneer in Modern Education" (London: Longmans, Green, 1949).

[21] Arno Lehmann, "August Hermann Franckes weltweites Wirken," pp. 78-102, in "A. H. Francke: Wort und Tat" (Berlin: Evangelische Verlagsanstalt, 1965).

FOOTNOTES (Continued)

[22] A. H. Francke, "Padagogische Schriften," edited by G. Kramer, second edition (Langensalza: Beyer, 1885), pp. 449-450.

[23] *Ibid*., pp. 451-452.

[24] Victor Cousin, "Rapport sur l'etat de l'instruction publique en Allemagne" (Paris, 1831).

[25] John S. Brubacher, "A History of the Problems of Education," second edition (New York: McGraw Hill, 1966), p. 479.

[26] Will S. Monroe, "International Congresses of Education," in Paul Monroe, editor, "A Cyclopedia of Education," Vol. III (New York: Macmillan, 1912), pp. 477-478.

[27] Spencer Stoker, "The Schools and International Understanding" (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1933), p. XVIII, note 24.

[28] For details on early twentieth-century exchange of professors and teachers, see Kendric B. Babcock, "University Teachers and Students, International Movement of," in Paul Monroe, editor, "A Cyclopedia of Education," Vol. V (New York: Macmillan, 1913), pp. 690-692.

[29] Stoker, *op*. *cit*., pp. XIX, pp. 115-119.

[30] Translation in Stewart Fraser, "Jullien's Plan for Comparative Education: 1816-1817" (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 136, 140-141.

[31] M. A. Jullien, "Esquisse et vues préliminaires d'un ouvrage sur l'éducation comparée" (Paris: Colas, 1817), p. 10. Reprint edition of The Bureau International d'Education, Geneva, 1962. English translation in Fraser, *op*. *cit*., p. 38.

[32] Julien, *op. cit*., pp. 24, 27-29, *et passim*, Fraser, *op. cit*., pp. 51, 54-56, etc.

[33] M. M. A. Jullien's Questions on Comparative Education, *American Journal of Education*, Vol. I, July, 1826, pp. 403-408; August, 1826, pp. 481-485; and September, 1826, pp. 730-737.

[34] Henry E. Dwight, "Travels in the North of Germany, in the Years 1825 and 1826" (New York: Carvill, 1829), p. 254.

[35] V. Cousin, "Rapport sur l'état de l'instruction publique dans quelques pays de l'Allemagne, et particulièrement en Prusse" 2 Vols. (Paris: Imprimerie Royale, 1832). The report was reprinted in a "nouvelle édition" the following year in one volume (Paris: Levrault, 1833). See also the English translation of the second volume by Sarah Austin: Victor Cousin, "Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia" (New York: Wiley and Long, 1835). Victor Cousin's "Do l'instruction secondaire dans le Royaume de Prusse pendant l'année 1831" (Paris, 1834) was not available.

[36] Pp. 49-66 of Vol. II of the Rapport, *op. cit*., constituting a translation of Title VI of the Prussian law of 1819, deal with the preparation, placement, promotion and punishment of primary school teachers. Cousin's discussion of the primary teacher seminaries covers a substantial portion of the Rapport, *Ibid*., pp. 132-230.

[37] *Ibid*., p. 131.

[38] *Ibid*., p. 221.

[39] Brubacher, *op*. *cit*., p. 479. See also John Albree, "Charles Brooks and his Work for Normal Schools? (Medford, Mass: 1907), p. 19.

[40] Cousin, "Rapport . . . " *op*. *cit*., p. 229.

[41] *Ibid*.

[42] V. Cousin, "De l'instruction secondaire dans le Royaume de Prusse" (Brussels: Société Belge de Librairie, 1841), pp. 19-76.

FOOTNOTES -(Continued)

[43] *Ibid.*, pp. 179-180.

[44] *Ibid.*, p. 199.

[45] Walter Brewer, "Victor Cousin as a Comparative Educator," unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Columbia University, 1968, was not available.

[46] Ellwood P. Cubberley, "Public Education in the United States," revised edition (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1934), pp. 357-359. *Cf.*, R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin "A History of Education in American Culture" (New York: Holt, 1953), pp. 231-232.

[47] Stowe's "Report on Elementary Public Instruction in Europe" (1837) and "Normal Schools and Teachers' Seminaries" (*American Biblical Repository*, June, 1839) were reprinted in one volume as "Common Schools and Teachers' Seminaries" (Boston: Marsh, Capen, Lyon, and Webb, 1839).

[48] Benjamin M. Smith, Report on the Primary School System of Prussia, January 15, 1839," in Edgar W. Knight, editor, "A Documentary History of Education in the South before 1860," Vol. II (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1950), pp. 410-460.

[49] Stowe, *op. cit.*, p. 57. His earlier work, "The Prussian System of Public Instruction and Its Applicability to the United States" (Cincinnati: Truman and Smith, 1836), was not available.

[50] Stowe, "Common Schools and Teachers' Seminaries," *op. cit.*, pp. 111-112.

[51] *Ibid.*, p. 112.

[52] Alex. Dallas Bache, "Report on Education in Europe to the Trustees of the Girard College for Orphans" (Philadelphia: Bailey, 1839), pp. 323-361, 440-449.

[53] Horance Mann, "Seventh Annual Report of the Board of Education; together with the Seventh Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board" (Boston: Dutton and Wentworth, 1844), pp. 128-145.

[54] Egerton Ryerson, "Report of a System of Public Elementary Instruction for Upper Canada" (Montreal: Lovell and Gibson, 1847), pp. 156-170, 186-188.

[55] For a careful analysis of this journal's coverage of European education, see Richard E. Thursfield, "Henry Barnard's *American Journal of Education*" (Baltimore, Md.: Johns Hopkins Press, 1945), pp. 137-182.

[56] Henry Barnard, "Normal Schools, and Other Institutions, Agencies, and Means Designed for the Professional Education of Teachers," 2 Vols. (Hartford: Case Tiffany, 1851). Vol. I contains only one page on New Brunswick and Upper Canada as against 223 pages on the United States. Vol. II contains 435 pages on European teacher education.

[57] James E. Russell, "German Higher Schools: The History, Organization and Methods of Secondary Education in Germany" (New York: Longmans, Green, 1899), pp. 352-387.

[58] William W. Brickman, "I. L. Kandel--International Scholar and Educator," *Educational Forum*, Vol. XV, May, 1951, pp. 390-391.

[59] I. L. Kendel, "The Training of Elementary School Teachers in Germany" (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1910); Peter Sandiford, "The Training of Teachers in England and Wales" (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1910).

[60] G.W.A. Luckey, "The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States," Ph.D. thesis, Columbia University (New York: The Author, 1903), pp. 17-50, on the history of the professional training of teachers in primary and secondary schools of Germany; H. Morsch, "Das Löhore Lohramt in Deutschland und Oesterroich" (Leipzig: Teubaer, 1905); John F. Brown, "The Training of Teachers for the Secondary Schools in Germany and the United States" (New York: Macmillan, 1911); William S. Learned, "The Oberlohror" (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1914).

[61] I. L. Kendel, "Comparative Education" (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1933), pp. 520-624, 827-860; William C. Bagley and Thomas Alexander, "The Teachers of the Social Studies" (New York: Scribner, 1937), pp. 83-238.

FOOTNOTES (Continued)

[62] E.g., C.A. Richards, Helènè Brulè and Harold E. Snyder, "The Education of Teachers in England, France, and the U.S.A." (Paris: Unesco, 1953).

[63] For example, William W. Brickman, editor, "Teacher Education in Foreign Countries," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. VII, December, 1956, pp. 292-331. George A. Hale, "Teacher Education in the Netherlands, Belgium and Luxembourg," Bulletin 1960, No. 4, U. S. Office of Education (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1960); Richard H. Shryock, editor, "The Status of University Teachers" (Ghent: International Association of University Professors and Lecturers, 1961); Joseph Hajault, "Teacher Training" (Strasbourg: Council for Cultural Co-operation, Council of Europe, 1965; George E. Dickson *et al.*, "The Characteristics of Teacher Education Students in the British Isles and the United States" (Toledo, Ohio: University of Toledo, 1965); and "Formation, recrutement et utilisation des enseignants: Germany, Belgiquo, United Kingdom" (Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1969).

[64] William W. Brickman, editor, "The Role of Comparative Education in the Education of Teachers" (New York: School of Education, New York University, 1954) and "The Teaching of Comparative Education" (New York: School of Education, New York University, 1955).

[65] I. L. Kendel, "The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study" (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1955), pp. 322-369; James D. Koerner, "Reform in Education: England and the United States" (New York: Delacorte, 1968), pp. 155-194.

[66] The remaining paragraphs are based on William W. Brickman, "The International Element in Teacher Education," *School & Society*, Vol. 97, pp. 474-475.

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS--GRADUATE AND UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS

Dr. Victor Couch

In a London museum there is a huge globe of the world. Walk up the stairs to the latitude of Ottawa, then look in a southerly direction. You cannot see Australia. It is "down under." In its geographical isolation it is presumed to be insular in outlook, which it is, and to be intensely national in purpose, which it is not. Somehow true international spirit is expected to be north of the equator.

Imagine my surprise during trips abroad when I have not often found a teacher in England who does not bristle when I talk about an American approach to a problem. Equally, I have not often found a teacher in North America was was interested in English ways, let alone other local ways of approaching educational problems. Doubtless, teachers on the Continent of Europe could provide similar food for thought. This points up the need in this International Education Year to provide a better context for teacher-functioning. Teachers need a world perspective--a backdrop to their teaching. Comparative and international education could provide this perspective. For every trainee teacher there should be offered a course in comparative and international education. It should be a pre-service and compulsory, not, as is substantially so throughout the world today, inservice and optional.

Present University and College programmes offer to teachers a time perspective and a limited space perspective. They offer a time perspective through the history of educational thought, taking the trainee teacher along a line of educational thinkers from the Greeks onwards. They offer him a limited space perspective. He sees himself in the classroom, in the local community and functioning within his own educational system. Such an approach tends to reinforce national expectations. It provides him with an essentially nationalistic outlook. He is still unaware of solutions to educational problems in other countries. He is ill-equipped to carry the torch of internationalism.

The value of a broadly based study of comparative and international education in the year prior to taking up teaching is twofold. It provides an international perspective to teaching. But it does more than that. It provides excellent motivation for later post-graduate depth study in this subject. It gives the broad base on which to mount specialised research.

Educators accept several aspects of Education as being essential to the preparation of teachers. They see the need for an analysis of the nature of education; how some notable educators of the past have interpreted it; the contribution of contemporary philosophy to more recent understanding. Educators, likewise, accept the place of educational psychology in giving to prospective teachers some insight into the nature of the learner; how he differs from others and within himself; the patterns of physical, perceptual, language, emotional and social development. Educators fully support an analysis of teaching procedures and some insight into curriculum theory. Finally, educators insist on a study of the school in society; the behaviours of the child in society and the teacher in society.

Educators can hardly deny the need for widening this last aspect to include a program that will take the teacher out of his own society and gives him an international orientation. Such a study, then, becomes one element in an integrated whole of educational theory and practice. This places comparative and international education closer to the centre of basic educational studies. It leaves for optional pursuit later the types of higher degree research now characteristic of comparative and international education.

The greatest need for reform is in undergraduate programs of teacher education. These are the four- or three-year programs leading either to a Bachelor's degree in Education or to some teacher certification credential. Together they would represent the basic training pattern for about 80 per cent of all teachers. At present, very little comparative and international education is taught in these programmes. Yet these integrated four- and three-year courses do offer the possibility of significant lead-up to comparative and international education in the final year. This may be achieved through two studies in an earlier year, one that focusses on the history of educational thought and the other on an examination of the trainee teacher's own national system. In the final year an introduction to the study of comparative and international education provides the basis for fresh insights into the earlier examination of the national system of education. The trainee teacher sees his own system somewhat within the context of world movements in education.

In the final year there is need for a course of one hour per week in comparative and international education. A program of some thirty lectures and discussions should provide a broad base rather than a narrowly specific one. It should be possible to study in a significant way two or three advanced countries and one developing country. As an example, a trainee teacher in Australia could gain fuller insight into his own state system and be given a wider perspective to his teaching through studies in comparative and international education having some relevance to him. There would be merit in studying the British patterns, both English and Scottish, because our educational systems have derived from them. Further, the many post-war influences on Australian education from North America open the possibility to a relevant study of education in the United States, difficult and kaleidoscopic as its patterns may seem to be. There could be some merit in studying a more centralised system. France offers many points of similarity with the Australian state systems; alternatively, examining socialist patterns of education, as in the USSR, could be quite rewarding. There may be some merit indeed in looking at a developing country, and what better one from an Australian viewpoint than our own trusteeship in New Guinea which provides many significant facets of the link between education and emerging social and economic patterns. This is the type of broad base I would suggest as having merit in terms of providing international perspective and providing a springboard for further depth study at a later date, and in this way giving the best possible basis for fulfilling those two objectives mentioned earlier.

There may of course be many focal points of comparison. A lecturer may wish to emphasise a particular level of education--pre-school, elementary, secondary, higher. He may wish to link comparative and international studies with specific subject areas; a prospective teacher of science could gain much from examining some of the exciting approaches to the teaching of science in other parts of the world. Stemming from area studies a lecturer may seek to examine a few major problems in education. It may be that the problem approach needs to be seen against the types of students, the level at which they are going to teach, the general orientation of their training and the values that they might get from a broadly based comparative and international approach before they are launched into their classrooms. Whatever the point of focus, it is significant that prospective teachers, when given the opportunity, are stimulated through comparative and international education to an enriched conception of their function. At Sydney Teachers' College, where I teach, every student in the final year, takes comparative and international studies as an integral part of his course.

The other significant pattern of teacher preparation is that provided for University graduates. This is the one-year end-on program leading to the Graduate Certificate of Education (as in some British Universities) or a Teaching Diploma of some type. Universities and Colleges face the difficult task of orienting in one year the graduate to his teaching career.

Equally compelling arguments can be used for the inclusion of comparative and international education as an integral part of the end-on program. In a survey of British, European and North American universities and colleges, I found that 20 per cent to 30 per cent of students elected comparative and international education, if it was offered as one of several options. For the Diploma in Education course given co-operatively by Sydney University and Sydney Teachers' College for many years, recent experience suggests that 60 per cent of students choose comparative and international education where the other options available are history of education and philosophy of education. Differences between universities and colleges in the choise of electives offered make comparisons very difficult.

Students undergoing this type of professional preparation generally teach senior classes in secondary schools. For them the need for a proper international orientation is paramount. Very often the specialised nature of undergraduate preparation means that the basic studies in the foundations of education have to be taken together in the professional year. Comparative and international education should be one of these basic studies.

It is desirable that any program in this basic study should be of adequate dimension—one hour per week for the academic year, giving a total of some 30 hours--sufficient to provide for the prospective secondary teacher a broad enough basis for him to see his specialist teaching against a background of other solutions to teaching in other parts of the world. He should be made aware of the social, racial, religious and economic factors influencing education; he should examine three or four case studies illustrative of these influences; and he should study the aims, objectives and achievements of major international organizations. Perhaps by way of assignment he could exercise the comparative discipline in studying the teaching of his subject speciality in one or two other national systems.

In maintaining the point that the study of comparative and international education should be a required element in final year preparation of all teachers, I am using International Education Year as a convenient rallying point. In my view, the studies which we here assembled in Ottawa profess, are central, not peripheral, to the educative process. Such studies should be compulsory, not optional. They offer in this way one further vehicle for better international understanding.

BIOGRAPHY

DR. VICTOR COUCH, B.A., M.Ed., Ph.D., M.A.C.E.

Dr. Victor Couch is the Vice Principal at Sydney Teachers College. He was Jones Medallist there in 1940. Since then he has gained at the University of Sydney his B.A. with first place in Education and his M.Ed. with Honours. During 1953-5 he read for his Ph.D. under Professor Lauwerys at London. He shares with Professor Trevor Miller the work in Comparative Education, both undergraduate and graduate, at the University of Sydney.

PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Organization of Courses

Lionel Desjarlais, Dean
Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa

When one speaks of the organization of courses, one must remember that any discussion thereof must be considered within the general all-embracing conceptual framework of education and one must view course-content as one of four interactive, correlative, dynamic, complementary dimensions of education. In other words, course content, description and sequencing or course organization can only evolve from philosophical positions which determine the kind of interaction the educator wants to occur between content-process-agent-aims constituents of the educational process.

To submit a statement on the organization of courses in comparative and international education without at the same time backing it up with a strong philosophical _prise de position_ would not only be presenting a body without a soul, a corpse, _un cadavre_ but furthermore would reveal on the part of the proposer a lack of integrity and authenticity.

The discussion of course organization must start at the beginning and the beginning is the _end in view_, the aims. These determine content and process and set the stage for agent interaction.

No one can find a better statement of the aims than that expressed in definitions of comparative education offered by the pioneers and giants of the discipline.

> Comparative education "tries to find out what is the intangible, impalpable spiritual force, which, in the case of any successful system of education, is in reality upholding the school system and accounting for its efficiency." (Sadler)
>
> ". . . it seeks to analyze and compare the forces that make for differences between national systems of education . . ."
>
> ". . . it deals with 'fundamental principles' and fosters 'acquisition of philosophical attitude' in analyzing and therefore stimulating a clearer understanding of the problems of education." (Kandel)
>
> ". . . Comparative education is a comparative study of one of the most complex forms of human behaviour--the educative process . . . [it] is interested in the vagaries of the educative process--the total process. We are dealing with behaviour. (King)
>
> "A brief working definition of comparative education is the careful analysis of educational systems, issues, and problems in two or more countries within the context of historical, socioeconomic, political, cultural, religious and other influential factors. (Brickman)

What stands out in these definitions is a philosophy of a human being in interaction with his environment.

This prise de position philosophique is necessary since it defines and directs our commitment to comparative education. It holds everything together.

One is reminded here of Hutchins' statement which is applicable to course content and organization when presented separate from underlying principles.

> The crucial error is that of holding, that nothing is anymore important than anything else, that there can be no order of goods and no order in the intellectual realm. There is nothing central, nothing basic and nothing superficial. A course of study goes to pieces because there is nothing to hold it together.

What is more important? to supply a sequence of topics? an organization of courses or to adopt an existential approach to world issues and their educational implications in a hic et nunc perspective.

The criteria for selection, organization and sequencing becomes the existential interaction between the inner and the outer, between man the agent and world the patient.

We must remember that education begins with the interaction of man and his world. This concept is at the heart of comparative education and any attempt to study comparative education outside of this is analagous to the study of the plant without the soil or the soil without the plant.

That this basic concept has been forgotten becomes evident when one views the mountains of comparative educational literature concerned with statistics. We describe, we count, we compute with the most sophisticated analyses, differences and similarities in educational input and output, stressing institutions, structures, plans, organizations, numbers,--forgetting the primacy of organisms over organizations.

That people do this more and that this outlook be the basis of much comparative education research and of courses is not only surprising since it represents only one incomplete view but is inevitable. What else can they do? Scholars who understand the human being, who are students of the philosophy of being are rarer and rarer.

I am now questioning the wisdom of presenting to teachers in training a formal course in comparative education. As a dean, I have had many occasions to examine transcripts of students requesting admission to our graduate school of education and over the years I have become intensely concerned and even disturbed by the appalling evidence of the growing shallowness and thinness of many undergraduate degree programs. In many of our North American universities, the narrowness of undergraduate degrees is in my view one of the greatest threats to education.

To ask student holders of degrees as just described to study comparative education in the light of the concepts developed in the beginning is like asking students who have not had high school algebra to study calculus.

Our modern college education is now such that in most instances it is feasible to earn a bachelor of Arts degree without the slightest notion of the fundamental arts.

How can teacher-education students who have been systematically deprived of the wellsprings of knowledge, who have little insight into the universals of physical, intellectual, social and religious being be interested in any other approach to comparative education than the quantitative superficial description of institutions, than the observable and measurable. What else can they do except to seek a certain constancy of a dependence, spatial and temporal of an observable and measurable consequent on an antecedent and to describe the process in statistical terms. This being the scientific approach. I do not disdain the scientific approach, nor do I exclude it as a method of study of comparative education; I am only asking that it be used with caution and with a realization that many more significant factors that transcend the observable and measurable make up the 'stuff' of comparative education.

The best that could happen to courses in comparative education would be that they be organized in such a way that the students could realize by themselves the cul-de-sac effect of the scientific method approach to the discipline and experience the emptyness and meaninglessness of any comparative education program that is not embedded in a fourfold philosophy of man and his environment.

On the assumption, however, that we do have undergraduates well armed in the supporting disciplines of comparative education and knowing at least another language well enough to identify with another culture, then we could recognize undergraduate courses for teachers in training.

The organization, I would propose, would start with a study of the pioneers of comparative education and the actual leaders in the field. In this study, one could arrive at a meaningful synthesis of the nature and methodology of comparative education.

A second section of the course would involve a study of area or national systems.

(a) The educational systems of England, France, Germany, U.S.S.R., and U.S.A. are important not only because they are found in heavily populated and highly industrialized countries but also because most other systems in the West are derived from one or other of them.

(b) Similarly, the major cultural and historical role of China and India in the shaping of Asian civilization is acknowledged widely enough to need further elaboration. Besides, the mere fact that more than one-third of all the people of the world live in these two countries aline is an adequate reason for studying the systems of education in these two countries. Also, Japan is noteworthy for its unique achievements in Asia.

(c) Latin America and Africa are very often taken for granted or simply ignored in most of the standard textbooks on Comparative Education. Many countries of these two continents (as well as that of Asia) are nowadays included in the category of what is euphemistically labelled as the 'third world' or 'emerging nations' or 'developing nations'. It is quite conceivable that the fate of the world could be one day decided in any one of these continents. Be that as it may, it is but right and logical that in our global approach to Comparative Education all the major continents should be represented.

(d) The study of each of these eleven areas or national units should be conducted separately in its historical setting, delineating in the process the development of national character and culture "the comparative approach demands first an appreciation of the intangible, impalpable spiritual and cultural forces which underlie an educational system; the factors and forces outside the school matter even more than what goes in it." Since comparative study of education must be founded on an analysis of the social, political, and philosophical ideals which the school reflects it is essential to know something of its history and traditions, of the forces and attitudes governing its social organization, and of the political and economic conditions that determine its development. The study of the background can contribute more to an understanding of an educational system than mere description of it.

In closing, I feel it important to restate my position concerning the organization of comparative and international education courses, by saying that unless students have the prerequisites, no course organization, no exposure to the discipline, will do anything but pile up facts, unrelated and unintegrated.

To be a comparative educator one must be fearlessly and bodly committed to man and his world in the fullest meaning of each of the terms.

SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE RELATION BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES AND THE PROCESSES OF MODERNIZATION AND CHANGE

L. Aran
S. N. Eisenstadt
C. Adler

For a long time sociological studies of education were rooted in the conception of education as a means of maintaining cultural continuity and/or as a tool of occupational selection. This conception implied the assumption of a rather stable equilibrium between education and other subsystems of the society. The rapid technological developments in industrial societies since World War II and especially the emergence of the new nations in which the clamor for rapid economic and social advance was set off against almost total absence of modern skills and institutions have stimulated interest in education as an instrument of change. In the early stages of the shift of emphasis from continuity to change the salience of the latter dimension has led to a rather one-sided and somewhat over-optimistic expectation of the modern, i.e., western-type education's ability to produce "productive", sustained change. Consequently the main effort became directed into the expansion of education and into the search for effective educational techniques with a view to gearing it toward economic, social and political development.

However, the study of the processes of change in developing societies made it increasingly apparent that educational processes do not invariably produce results compatible with effective modernization. Indeed, in some cases when new aspirations and expectations generated by the educational processes cannot be fulfilled in the existing social frameworks, they may lead to frustration, alienation and intransigence and thus even block development instead of promoting it. These observations have brought forth the problem of the apparent contradiction between change and continuity, between the pattern-maintaining and the innovating functions of education. In their attempt to resolve the problem, most investigators were explicitly or implicitly guided by the following assumptions:

(a) that the success of an educational system to effectively promote modernization depends on its ability to produce skills and expectations commensurate with the demand of the occupational market, and that disequilibrium between supply of such skills by education and demand for them by the economy must have an adverse effect on development,

(b) that in order to maintain a balance between the supply of skills and motivations produced by the educational system on the one hand and the expanding economic needs of a modernizing society on the other, emphasis must be laid on technical and vocational education.

Recent research has undermined the validity of these assumptions. First, it can be shown that although the state of imbalance between education-produced skills, aspirations and expectations on the one hand, and the level of demand for them in the occupational market on the other hand, may and indeed sometimes does, result in political, social and economic regression. It can also serve as a lever of innovation and entrepreneurship and thus positively contribute to modernization, while apparently full absorption of the rapidly growing output of the educational system in the market may coexist with economic and/or political and/or social stagnation or breakdowns.

Second, comparative investigation of educational systems indicates not only that an extensive network of vocational education does not necessarily associate with successful modernization in terms of fast rate of economic growth, but also that in some cases failure of the educational system to develop a network of vocational schools and to reverse the trend toward preference of general over technical subjects may be accompanied by an extremely rapid industrialization.

These variations in the implications of specific market situations as well as of specific contents and structural characteristics of education for the nature of change and modernization point to the need for considerable refinement of the analytic model attempting to explain the relationship between educational processes, change and modernization.

First, neither modernization nor education can be usefully analyzed as total, homogeneous, monolithic concepts; each has many aspects and components which do not necessarily co-vary nor have a similar impact on other variables. Thus, e.g., diffusion of primary education may promote political and social awareness and participatory aspirations without necessarily raising the level of skills and/or of the capacity for commitment to wider collectives and their goals: education on any level may raise aspirations concerning consumption out of proportion to the concomitant increase of productive capacity. On the other hand, rapid expansion of education may under certain conditions, be associated with slow rise in the consumption level, fast rate of productivity growth and slow political change.

It follows that similar developments in one or more sectors of the educational system may have different effects under varying social, cultural, economic and political conditions on the developments in other systems of the society. Thus, e.g., in India, increased production of university graduates combined with unemployment and underemployment resulted in alienation and political vulnerability of intellectuals and professionals, unaccompanied by an emergence of genuinely innovating roles: in Japan, a seemingly similar situation led to innovation and to economic entrepreneurship.

Moreover, the association of educational expansion with development may be coincidental rather than causal. In some cases, notably in Venezuela, economic growth is paralleled by educational expansion. However, upon examination the expanding educational system does not seem to have significantly affected patterns of entrepreneurship, emergence of new innovating elites or productivization of participation patterns.

It is suggested that in order to gain better understanding of the relationship between educational processes and the processes of change and modernization, we should first redefine the problem or reformulate some of the basic questions. Instead of asking which type of educational system, or what kind of educational organization or curriculum are best suited to promote modernization, we should rather ask: which constellations of general social factors in combination with which specific factors within education itself, promote and which inhibit different, possibly new types of social attitudes and skills and especially effective innovative, productive modernizing behavior in various areas of social life.

In order to be able to study educational variables within the dynamic context of their interaction with each other as well as with other social variables, it is necessary to refine the model of exchange between education and other social systems so as to include many variables and to allow for the complexity of their interaction. More specifically, we suggest the following major modifications of the demand-supply model:

A. The concepts of demand and supply must be extended to refer not only to skills and occupational opportunities respectively, but also to include symbols, values, meanings, orientations toward wider groups, participation in and commitment to social, cultural and political orders and centers. Each of these can be an object of demand by any party to the exchange processes, as well as an object of supply in the context of educational contents; besides, each may constitute rewards, some of which need not be mediated by any specific occupational roles.

B. In the analysis of situations of the demand-supply encounter, specification must be made not only of specific objects or contents of demand and supply, but also of groups carrying it; such as cultural, political and economic policy-making elites on the one hand, and variously located groups of learners and wouldbe learners on the other hand. The center may demand for instance, a Western-type civic orientation and consequently insist on its supply through education. This orientation may be in demand, and therefore usefully taken up by a group of westernized elites, but meaningless and therefore ineffective in the education of wider, more traditional or ethnically peripheral groups. It is hypothetically assumed that each category of demand and of supply may vary independently, and that the identity of the group carrying it is a relevant factor in its variation in the encounter with other variables.

C. The model must be opened to include the effect of interaction of each educational variable with variables of the institutional make-up of the society, such as the nature of the political and cultural centers and of economic, stratificational and other social factors.

Our findings so far suggest a number of hypotheses linking education and modernization processes. We shall present a few of them here with a view to demonstrating the utility of the model.

1. A "strong" center* will tend to encourage innovative orientations of the educational system to the challenge of change and reinforce the effectiveness of the system in fostering productive-participatory orientations and commitment of the educatees to the collective goals of the society. Consequently, a considerable proportion of the educated will be capable of and motivated toward innovative, transformative and committed behavior. The impact of those of them who will eventually participate in policy decision-making in different social fields and thus in a position to control allocation of resources and rewards, will feed back on the aspirations and expectations of those about to enter the education system.

2. The success of the educational processes to impart productive, flexible orientations in the educated is less dependent on the contents of the curricula (such as the predominance of "general" or of "vocational" training) but rather on the capacity of the type of training to bridge between the cultural and the social context of the group in question and that of the society: and on the capacity of the economic, political and stratificational systems to reward productive innovation and entrepreneurship.

3. The introduction of a western-type of education alone will not be effective in directing the product of education toward innovative productive activity and prevent its impingement on the political center, especially if the only known pattern of mobility associated with educational achievement had been through the entry into the central political elite. However, wide geographic and social spread of educational opportunities without marked ecologic and social discontinuities in levels and types of education, with numberous institutionalized and semi-institutionalized intermediate stages of accomplishment will tend to promote flexibility and attenuate impingement on the political center.

On the basis of the ongoing research, it seems to us that the extension of the concepts of supply and demand beyond skills and occupational opportunities and the identification of their bearers may help us to understand why for instance in one country, e.g., Japan, a high demand for education in the population is associated with accelerated growth and development, while in another, e.g., South American countries, it is associated with chronic political unrest and institutional stagnation, or with purely adaptive behavior, e.g., the Philippines. The analysis guided by the model suggested above has shown that in Japan the demand of the "learners" for skills and for instrumental rewards was accompanied by culturally engendered demand for productive orientations and for symbolic participation in the central spheres of the society, and that the center was not only able to supply these, but, even more importantly, managed to make such orientations and such types of participation self-reinforcing by imbuing them with meaningfulness which gave them the power to serve as rewards. In the Philippines on the other hand, and to some extent in the South American countries, the poorly formed, weak center cannot elicit committed participation even though it offers an abundant supply of civic indoctrination as well as a variety of technical and vocational skills. Neither supply answers the primary genuine demand of the learners which is aimed for instrumental rewards dissociated from productive forms of participation and partly, especially in the Philippines, also from productive economic performance. The traditional cultural values did not engender in the learners and would-be learners a demand for such productive participatory orientations whereas the weak center failed to stimulate effective demand for it because of its lack of capacity to reward it. In other words, consumption-geared rather than productive orientation, and expectation of rewards in distributive rather than participatory terms on the part of the learners reflect the policies and the image of the societal center itself. Such a center is perceived not as the repository of meaningful contents but as the holder and distributor of resources--power, money and status. Consequently, the entrepreneural energies residing in the population and the skills obtained in the process of education will tend to be used in the search for the preferable position from the point of view of access to spoil-sharing, rather than in productive innovative efforts.

---

*A societal center is defined as strong if it is rich in meaninfgul, symbolic contents representing and interpreting social, political and cultural orders and if it is capable of imbuing participation in shaping these orders with the significance of a reward.

WORLD-ORIENTED EDUCATION FOR INSTITUTIONS OF LEARNING AT ALL LEVELS

George Geng, ED. D.
Glassboro State College

Education, world-oriented education, and institutions of learning at all levels are the key concepts involved in the topic of this paper. The four obvious questions implied are: First of all, what is world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels? Secondly, why should there be world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels? Thirdly, how could there be world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels? And, finally, what does world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels have to do with the Comparative and International Education Societies around the world!

Glassboro State College has been engaged in the task of promoting world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels since the fall of 1964, when the Committee on World Education came into being, especially after the Summit Conferences of President Lyndon Johnson and Premier Aleksei Kosygin on June 23 and 25 in 1967. It is my attempt, therefore, to give these questions very brief but precise answers, based on our experiences at Glassboro or the so-called "Hollybush Spirit."

What is World-Oriented Education for Institutions of Learning at all Levels?

John Dewey, in his monumental work, Democracy and Education, defines education as a necessity of life, as a social function, as direction, and as growth. According to him, "life is a self-renewing process" and education, just as nutrition and reproduction, is essential to keep this life process going.[1] The society, like an individual person, "sustains itself through continuous self-renewal" and it is the social function of education to bring about this renewal through self-renewal of its immature members.[2] Since the "natural or native impulses of these immature members do not agree with the life-customs of the group," they have to be directed or guided in order to achieve their internal control. It is the business of education to provide this direction.[3] As the individual achieves this internal control, he grows out of the immaturity, fixates certain habits, and acquires a number of qualities. Since growth is the characteristic of life, education is all one with growing.[4]

The Committee on World Education at Glassboro considers World Education, or world-oriented education, as "an educational program for the promotion of world peace, the development of a world community, and the identification of man with humanity." Being an educational program World Education has its aims and objectives as well as activities and projects. It promotes world peace because war never permanently settles any dispute and effort must be made to establish and maintain a just and lasting peace. It seeks to develop a world community because the world is rapidly shrinking and nations as well as peoples are more interrelated and interdependent. It works toward man's identification with humanity because, regardless of their numerous differences, men are human and this feeling of kinship and relatedness among all men must be strengthened.[5]

World Education may also be considered as meaningful experiences a person gains about the world, through various means and channels, in order to acquire world outlook, to develop world perspective, to formulate world point of view, and to cultivate world citizenship, for the maximum development of his full potentialities and for the advancement of the well-being and welfare of all mankind.

Meaningful experiences mean what a person learns through his daily living about the world around him. Various means and channels refer to the different agencies and agents of education. World outlook means the mental view of a person which makes him a part of the world. World perspective refers to one's relationship with other human beings of the world, as perspective, according to Clarence Barnhart, means "the relation of parts to one another and to the whole, in a mental view or prospect."[6] World point of view is a mental position or attitude toward an object which may be an individual, a nation, or a race. World citizenship refers to membership of the world community, with all the privileges and responsibilities pertaining to it. For the maximum development of the individual's full potentialities and for the advancement of the well-being and welfare of all mankind are the long-range goals to be achieved and when they are achieved, I believe, the tripartite aim of world peace, world community, and man's identification with humanity is also realized.[7]

Institutions of learning at all levels would include nurseries, kindergartens, elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges, universities as well as mass media and those sponsored by civic, social, and religious groups or organizations. The educational programs of all these institutions should be oriented toward the world and their ultimate goals should be the maximum development of each individual's full potentialities and the advancement of the well-being and welfare of all mankind, or the realization of the tripartite aim of world peace, world community, and man's identification with humanity.

Why should there be World-Oriented Education for Institutions of Learning at all Levels?

The reasons for having world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels were implied in my discussion of what world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels is. In this section, I intend to make those implications as explicit as I possibly can.

First of all, since the world is shrinking so rapidly and the peoples as well as nations are so closely interrelated and interdependent, it is obvious that all the peoples inhabiting this planet must learn how to deal with their numerous conflicts and problems, especially those that are ideological, social, economic, and political in nature. They may lead to a global war with sophisticated nuclear weapons. The result of such a war may be their own destruction, along with their self-created splendid civilizations.

Secondly, in order to avoid such a war and its possible consequences, man must learn how to establish and maintain world peace, how to develop and strengthen world community, and how to facilitate and hasten man's identification with humanity. To make this possible, efforts must be made to help people everywhere acquire world outlook, develop world perspective, formulate world point of view, and cultivate world citizenship. With possession of these qualities, men are able to develop their full potentialities to the maximum and to advance the well-being and welfare of all mankind. World Education aims to do all these; therefore, there should be world-oriented education.

Thirdly, institutions of learning provide educational programs for helping people, especially the young, learn how to grow out of immaturity, how to become socially competent, how to be self-directive, and how to continue the process of self-renewal. Such programs must be oriented toward the world and mankind and the ONE-WORLD ideal must be instilled in people's mind. On "The Present World Affairs: Meanings for Education," William Heard Kilpatrick states that "another war would be disastrous. . . . The creation of such ONE-WORLD arrangements as will abolish war and establish abiding peace is of supreme importance. To succeed with this problem will . . . require of the world . . . both ingenuity and good will. Possibly it will require another generation before we can gain the necessary insight and good will. If so, the clearer are the demands on education. It must raise up a generation equipped with the needed insight and will."[8]

Finally, world-oriented education has to be at all levels because continuity and consistency are essential for its success. In fact, world-oriented education tends to mold people's outlook, perspective, point of view, and citizenship. One's early learning or experiences during the formative years lay a foundation for his later development. Therefore, preschool as well as elementary, secondary, and higher levels of educational institutions should all be world-oriented. As to education at adult level, the same orientation is needed and this would include mass media as well as programs sponsored by civic, social, and religious institutions.

How could there be World-Oriented Education for Institutions of Learning at all Levels!

Any educational program, whether at preschool, elementary, secondary, higher, or adult level, would have several essential components, at least some if not all of them.

Aims or objectives, curriculum or courses of studies, subject-matter or contents, facilities or equipment, approaches or methods of instruction, student personnel services or guidance and counseling, measurement and testing or evaluation are the major components. I would like to point out, in this section, how world-oriented education can be made possible for institutions of learning at all levels.

First, in the statement of aims or objectives, a phrase, clause, or sentence could be added on this point. Glassboro's Committee on Institutional Planning, for instance, has inserted in its statement on the college's goals that "it is imperative that the reach of the institution extend beyond the normal bounds and develop, in all phases of its program, an awareness of and interest in the welfare of all mankind in an increasingly shrinking world."[9]

Second, in the curriculum of an institution, there are courses of studies. Most high schools have 2, 3, or 4 kinds of curricula for students of different interests, needs, needs, abilities, or preferences. In colleges and universities, many curricula and courses are available for students to choose or elect. The most basic of all ways to make educational programs world-oriented is to get the idea into all the courses, regardless of their levels or disciplines, especially social studies or social sciences. Another way is to add new courses on other countries, peoples, cultures, or distinguished achievements of other nations. The third way is, for colleges and universities particularly, to add new curriculum in world affairs or international studies. Glassboro, for example, is planning to introduce an interdisciplinary and interdepartmental Curriculum in World Studies.[10]

Third, as to subject-matter or contents, the most important thing here is to add materials relevant to the courses offered on countries, peoples, culture, or distinguished achievements of some kind other than our own. For instance, in music, art, philosophy, literature, religion, architecture, science, technology, etc., there are many outstanding achievements around the world that can be used to enrich the courses offered.

Fourth, equipment or facilities are to assist instruction. Publications of all kinds to increase library holdings and resources, tools and instruments, films, specimens and other kinds of aids in the audiovisual field, etc., can be secured from all over the world without too much difficulty or a great deal of expenses.

Fifth, approaches or methods of instruction can and should be diversified. The so-called activity or project method can and should be used at all levels. The activities or projects can be directed toward free and creative explorations into the unknown. Foreign countries, peoples, cultures, and achievements in various fields, which usually are unknown or little known, are ideal grounds for such explorations.

Sixth, guidance and counseling or student personnel services could be of great help, if the policy of the institution is to provide world-oriented education. Most outstanding among them is organized activities which are co-curricular in nature. Many intercultural or international projects or activities may be undertaken by student groups. They could be both exciting and educational.

Finally, evaluation or testing and measurement can be used to stimulate students' interest in and efforts for world-oriented studies, which means studies of various subjects with a world view. Papers may be assigned and questions may be asked, calling for students' knowledge, judgment, or inferences on topics with international implications.

What does World-Oriented Education for Institutions of Learning at all Levels have to do with the Comparative and International Education Societies around the World?

Since this is the World Congress of Comparative and International Education Societies, what does world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels have to do with the Comparative and International Education Societies around the world? It is my responsibility now to give this question a candid answer.

Comparative Education, International Education, and World Education are the three terms which are often used. The oldest is Comparative Education and the newest is World Education. The most popular one now is International Education. Are these terms synonymous? Are there any differences? If so, how are they related to each other?

Philip Coombs, in his book--The World Educational Crisis, has sections on "The Imputs of Educational Systems," "The Outputs of Educational Systems," and "International

Cooperation: A Key to Meeting the Crisis."[11] George Bereday, in his edited book--Essays on World Education, includes articles such as "School Systems and Mass Demand: A Comparative Overview," "International Cooperation through Universities to strengthen Education," "Symposium on Asian Education," "Latin America," and "Education in the U.S.A."[12] Carlton Beck, in his edited book--Perspectives on World Education, presents articles on education in Europe, the Middle East, North America, Latin America, and Africa.[13] To those three authors, the three terms seem to be synonymous.

Isaac L. Kandel defines Comparative Education as "the comparative study of educational institutions of different countries."[14] David Scanlan considers International Education as a "term used to describe the various types of educational and cultural relations among nations."[15] Freeman Butts, in the 68th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, The United States and International Education, says that it was "professionally a risky choice" of the Yearbook Committee "to use the term 'International Education' in the title" for that book because "some future yearbook authors or historians will be extremely critical of the committee's having adopted a term which seems to them so terribly dated or outdated. Scholars back in 1968 surely should have realized that 'international' was far too provincial a term for a world that was soon to do away with nations as they were known at that time. They should have used the term 'world education' . . . to refer to education for a world society, a world culture, or a world civilization."[16]

Based on what I have discussed before the meaning of World Education and what Kandel, Scanlan, and Butts have said, there seem to be differences in these terms. As the American society carries both "comparative" and "international" in its name and as Beck clearly implies that Comparative Education is, in fact, World Education, the three terms are at least very closely related. But, World Education, as I have discussed in this paper, goes beyond what Comparative or International Education usually does. It provides an ideology or a philosophy which deals with the goals or aims, curriculum and instruction, and other essential components of the total programs of education.

There are at least two possible ways by which the Comparative and International Education Societies around the world may be related to World Education or world-oriented education for institutions of learning at all levels. In the first place, professors and scholars engaged in teaching or research in the field of Comparative or International Education may go a step further, namely, keeping the suggested aims or goals in mind and adopting the suggested approaches or methods of instruction so that students taking the courses in Comparative or International Education will not only learn knowledge or skills, but also acquire the world outlook, develop world perspective, formulate world point of view, and cultivate world citizenship.

And, secondly, while the professors and scholars are doing their teaching and research, they may also find it possible to spread the movement of re-orienting the educational programs of the institutions of learning at all levels in their respective countries. If the world is worth saving and if men really want to abolish war and safeguard the well-being and welfare of all mankind, educators of all the countries must stand together and work hand in hand in training the younger generations for world peace, world community, and man's identification with humanity.

With the four basic questions now answered, I would like to make a final plea. Most of the ideas presented in this paper may sound too new to most of you. Many of them probably appear to be too radical to many of you. Some may even think this is too much indoctrination. As a member of the teaching profession in a college community, I am sharing those ideas at this World Congress with intellectual honesty and academic integrity. Sympathetic reactions, positive suggestions, and constructive criticisms are cordially invited. Further discussions on any of the ideas shared with you here will be heartily welcomed.

Thank you for your attention!

GEORGE GENG, ED. D. Professor of Psychology,
Chairman, Committee on World Education
Glassboro State College
Glassboro, New Jersey, U. S. A.

FOOTNOTES

[1] John Dewey, Democracy and Education, p. 11.

[2] Ibid., p. 12.

FOOTNOTES (Continued)

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 47-48.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 49-62.

[5] Com. on World Education, *The World Education Newsletter*, Vol. I, No. 2, pp. 1-2.

[6] Clarence Barnhart (ed), *The American College Dictionary*, p. 861.

[7] Committee on World Education, *A Symposium on World Education*, pp. 2-3.

[8] William Heard Kilpatrick, *Philosophy of Education*, p. 415.

[9] Institutional Planning Committee (G.S.C.), *Projected Goals and Policies for the Purposes of Planning*, Revised Draft, p. 2.

[10] George Geng and Samuel Witchell, *A Preliminary Proposal for a Curriculum in World Studies*.

[11] Philip H. Coombs, *The World Educational Crisis*, pp. 17-97; 145-161.

[12] George Z. F. Bereday, *Essays on World Education*, edited, pp. 93-110; 210-311.

[13] Carlton E. Beck, *Perspectives on World Education*, edited, pp. 3-434.

[14] I. L. Kandel, *The New Era in Education--A Comparative Study*, p. 6.

[15] David G. Scanlan, *International Education--A Documentary History*, p. 1.

[16] R. Freeman Butts, "America's Role in International Education: A Perspective on Thirty Years," *The United States and International Education*, The 68th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, p. 7.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Barnhart, Clarence L. (ed.). *The American College Dictionary*, New York, Random House, 1949.

Beck, Carlton E. (ed.), *Perspectives on World Education*, Dubuque, Iowa, William C. Brown Company, 1970.

Bereday, George Z.F. (ed.), *Essays on World Education: The Crisis of Supply and Demand*, New York, Oxford University Press, 1969.

Committee on World Education. *A Symposium on World Education*, (mimeographed), Glassboro State College, Glassboro, N.J., 1967.

Committee on World Education. *The World Education Newsletter*, Vol. I, No. 2, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, N.J., 1965-66. (mimeographed).

Coombs, Philip H., *The World Educational Crisis: A System's Analysis*, New York, Oxford University Press, 1968.

Dewey, John. *Democracy and Education: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*, New York, Macmillan Co., 1923.

Geng, George and Samuel Witchell. *A Preliminary Proposal for a Curriculum in World Studies*, (mimeographed), Committee on World Education, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, N.J., 1969.

Institutional Planning Committee, *Projected Goals and Policies for the Purposes of Planning*, Revised Draft, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, N.J., 1969. (mimeographed).

Kandel, I.L. *The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study*, Cambridge, Mass. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955.

Kilpatrick, William Heard. *Philosophy of Education*, New York, Macmillan, 1963.

National Soc. for the S. of Ed. *The United States and International Education*, 68th Yearbook, Part I, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1969.

Scanlan, David. (ed.). *International Education: A Documentary History*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Col. University, N.Y., 1960.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Margaret Gillett, Ed. D.
Professor of Education
McGill University

My first reaction to this topic, Comparative and International Education in Teacher Education," was hardly one of enthusiasm. It could be summarized as "Not that again!" This is one of those unsinkable, perennial subjects--and it was treated at a conference of this kind in Canada as recently as the end of last May. Furthermore, I discover that twenty-five to thirty other people have been asked to give papers on this topic in Ottawa this week. For the person preparing a paper, this represents something of a risk--who knows but that we are all repeating the same old thing! It seems to me that in general, Comparative Educators have a tendency toward self-examination (I'm not sure whether this is narcissistic or masochistic) that can be exceedingly tedious and repetitious. However, there is little doubt that the great potential of Comparative Education for stimulating interest and providing insights for teacher education has not been fully realized, so the topic still needs consideration. Rather than give a paper, I want merely to prepare the way for discussion, and I have confidence that from the discussion something fresh and worthwhile will emerge.

Obviously, this topic has two parts: Comparative Education and Teacher Education. These two are not necessarily always considered together. I suspect that Comparative Educators tend to consider themselves as "Comparative Educators" and to see other people, those in Curriculum and Instruction, Education Administration and the like as "Teacher Educators," and that "Teacher Educators" tend to think of Comparative Educators as not quite in the mainstream. This may be a moot point, but it is fairly clear that both parts of the topic have their specialists who think, talk, and write a lot and sometimes stray into each other's territory. The question is whether there can be any serious, long-term relationship, whether Comparative Educators will take an active part in classroom teacher preparation and whether Teacher Educators will take Comparative Educators seriously.

I plan to outline two fairly recent proposals for fundamental renovation of teacher education: one from a Comparative Education perspective, the other from a Teacher Education perspective. Can these two kinds of proposals be reconciled or integrated?

First, a Comparative Educator's concept of Comparative Education in Teacher Education. Dr. Edmund J. King gave us a model for the progression of comparative education through undergraduate and graduate studies in his book, Comparative Studies and Educational Decisions (1968). He may also have treated this in his paper at this congress--in any event, he outlines a five point progression which he summarizes on page 138.

1. Information (of a provisionally analytical kind), with special reference to the global idiom and growth-climax of one or more cultural patterns alien to the observer;
2. educational questioning and analysis of a more transcedent kind, dealing generically with "problems" occurring cross-culturally (but all needing to be pieced back into context in order to make real sense):
3. more exact identification of a problem for research, or for enquiry into the developmental dynamic of the problem thus examined;
4. research programmes of a concerted or reformative kind;
5. active commitment to public service, with its implications for training or retraining, and for the establishment of institutions of communication and decision.

Is this your concept of an ideal basis for Comparative Education? How far from the ideal are present programmes? In recent studies, two of my colleagues at McGill

44

(Drs. David Smith and Roger Magnuson) have found that in Canada we have not nearly reached this level of sophistication. It might even be suggested that Comparative Education still tends to be considered with something akin to suspicion. I think that its main problem may be, paradoxically, that it is too intrinsically interesting. Despite the fact that Comparative Educators had some missionary ancestors and that International Education still has "mish" overtones, they are tinged with the glamour of far-away places and have obvious possibilities for field work involving international travel. No wonder other stay-at-home educators look on them with a twinge of jealousy as they get on with what they consider the real business of teacher preparation. Could it be that some educators still harbour the notion that, in order to be good, sound, worthwhile, respectable, a subject has to be nasty and dull? Or do they have a point? Can we really justify the inclusion of Comparative Education in already-crowded programmes for students who are demanding immediate relevance?

It would seem that once you have a course in Comparative Education in the curriculum, you have relatively little difficulty in getting takers. An extraordinary number of students--undergraduate and graduate--seem interested not only with the exotic, but also with the obvious--the U. S. A. and the U. S. S. R., for example. But does Comparative Education really contribute to the classroom? Does the interest last? How many teachers, for example, read Comparative Education Review?

But to return to the proposal--Dr. King's ecological viewpoint appeals to me immensely, so does his explanation for a comparative approach to educational problems. He says, "The virtue in comparison lies in its recognition that no one system is self-justified, but all are interdependent and perhaps complementary in the insights they give into the whole human condition." (p. 19). Echoes of this were heard at our CIESC meeting in Winnipeg last May when Dr. Robin Harris stated that "the study of educational practices . . . demands a comparative approach."

It is all very well for Comparative Educators to say this sort of thing, but do "straight" educators share this view? Do comparative studies loom large in the ideas and ideals of Educational Psychologists, Curriculum and Instruction professors and the rest? Do they loom at all?

As an example of a "Teacher Educator's" proposal for teacher education, I offer the pattern of preconditions devised by Dr. John Macdonald of Sir George Williams University, Montreal. This material comes from a report, The Discernible Teacher, published this year by the Canadian Teachers' Federation. Again there are five points:

1. Unless it is desired to repeat past errors, no new teacher education program should be devised that is not based on a thorough analysis of teaching as a task.

2. Unless it is intended that the present separation between teacher education and teacher behaviour should continue, no new teacher education program should be devised that does not include provision for the assessment of performance following training.

3. Teacher education must cease to be the exclusive responsibility of universities and colleges, and become the overt concern of the whole educational system.

4. The organizational provision for research on teaching and for the evaluation of teacher performance has to be made within the educational system, since external agencies cannot perform these functions adequately.

5. The early graduates of a teacher education program that employs the task-analytical approach to instruction must be treated as a cadre group, and remain in close touch with the training institution. (p. 21).

This is the basis for what Dr. Macdonald calls the Integrated Teacher Education program.

You might note here that there is no mention of the need for a comparative approach. Dr. Macdonald, who is a psychologist, wants reform of teacher education based on scientific analysis. He wants to reject the conventional wisdom based on tradition, custom, and consensus in favour of a rationalized rationale based on what teachers actually do. His mode of bridging the gap between the theory of colleges of education and the practice of the schools is to make the teacher education programmes more analytic, systematic, rational, more concerned with teaching.

Despite the fact that these two proposals have both to do with overhauling teacher education, despite the fact that they are both relatively recent, despite the fact that both are made by people of some standing in their own fields, and despite the fact that they both have five points--despite all these, I realize that the two proposals aren't really parallel. In a sense I've been comparing apples and oranges. But isn't this so often the problem? Comparative Educators may set up their system for teacher education, with their particular values and frames of reference. Other educators set up theirs. And don't these frames of reference tend to become scaffoldings--or scaffolds from which we all hang separately?

Perhaps the real question is can we break down these bars? Is there any point in Comparative Educators talking to each other? Shouldn't we be out convincing other educators that Comparative Education can provide necessary insights into the whole human condition? Can the two parts of this topic, Comparative Education and Teacher Education, be synthesized?

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

MATERIALS AND AIDS

Willis H. Griffin,
University of Kentucky

In preparing this paper it was necessary first to grapple with definitions. The term "comparative education" may have a fairly well-established meaning among educators from different countries even though this academic field is still relatively young. The term "international education" may be less well established, at least in the sense that it means the same thing to all of us. In giving thought to the international dimension of education I have found it helpful to define international education as the intellectual, academic and cultural interaction among societies (governments, academic and professional agencies, and individual persons) intended for the purposes of improving understanding and empathy among the peoples of the world and increasing sophistication regarding international and intercultural relations and world affairs, and the resultant cross-cultural broadening of the knowledge base of formal and informal teaching-learning programs. This definition is meant to be comprehensive and to include such activities as exchange of persons and materials, international conferences among educators, scientists, artists and professionals, international cooperation for educational development, cross-cultural cooperative research, and the planning of international professional organizations such as this Congress; it is also intended to include formal and informal teaching programs dealing with such subjects as international relations, comparative music, Western technology, tropical agriculture, world history, foreign language and literature, Oriental philosophy, and education in other nations. In this definition comparative education becomes one approach, albeit an important one, to the study of one major aspect of international and cross-cultural knowledge.

As regards teacher education, this definition of international education relates to the general or liberal education of teachers, their academic specialization, and their professional training. As a complement to formal study programs there is a place for related international and cross-cultural experience. Obviously, in a brief paper it is impossible to deal significantly with all elements of these several dimensions. Therefore, I have chosen to comment on the place of teachering resources--materials, aids, human resources and off-campus experience--in the professional training dimension of teacher education, realizing the importance of integrating professional studies, subject matter specialization and liberal studies in actual practice.

It would be presumptious to outline a bibliography of materials and aids to an audience representing so many parts of the world with diverse national, linguistic and cultural backgrounds and representing a variety of teacher education programs. I shall try, however, to suggest categories of teaching resources that may be appropriate in many situations and for potentially common purposes, limiting myself for the most part to materials available in English. Certainly in the world of today and tomorrow we share the common need for the international socialization of teachers, both as to their professional outlook and their ability to educate the youth of our countries to a world perspective as well as national commitment. Other papers of this Congress have dealt with this subject; my own biases will undoubtedly show through as I talk about teaching materials and aids. One bias is directly related to the use of materials in teaching and it favors their use in student-initiated individual or group projects as a complement to a text-book or an assigned core of reading. This approach requires the availability of a wide variety of materials and other resources in which students can research answers to problems of their own interest.

Whether teacher training is organized as a post-secondary, undergraduate or postgraduate program or a combination of these, it usually contains, in the first place, material drawn from history, philosophy, sociology (and increasingly anthropology), psychology and other social sciences as they shed light on the place of education in society and the human processes of maturation and enculturation. Teacher training also contains study of how educational institutions are organized and administered, and how curriculum is determined. A third element includes study of general teaching purposes, methods and materials, and/or those related to specific subjects. Comparative education is sometimes included, as an elective or as a requirement, but except for this possible input, the areas of study in teacher training are usually pursued on a uni-cultural basis. I shall select a small number of areas in each of these three elements to illustrate the kinds of materials that can be used to add international and cross-cultural dimensions.

In the first element, sometimes known as the foundations of education, prospective teachers usually study the socialization of children in society. Materials on this process in other societies and cultures include the following: Margaret Mead's Childhood in Contemporary Cultures and Coming of Age in Samoa, J. S. B. Douglas' The Home and the School (England), the new book by Urie Bronfenbrenner entitled Two Worlds of Childhood--U.S. and U.S.S.R., Lorene K. Fox's East African Childhood: Three Versions, J. E. Richie's The Making of a Maori, William Conton's The African, V. S. Naipaul's A House for Mr. Biswas, Ruth Benedict's The Chrysanthemum and the Sword (Japan), Oscar Lewis' Children of Sanchez, Melford E. Spiro's Children of the Kubbutz: A Study in Child Training and Personality, August B. Hollingshead's Elmtown's Youth (U.S.A.).

Similar materials are available in the form of articles found in sociological, anthropological and comparative education journals. The following are a few examples: "Education and Pluralism in Selected Caribbean Societies" by Joseph P. Farrell, "Cross Cultural Study of Creative Ideas in Children" by Norma Trowbridge, "Social Stratification and Adolescent Academic Performance in a Lebanese Town" by George Weightman and Zahi Rihani, and "On Harmonious Development of a Child" by N. Goncharov.

Another major resource for understanding the processes of growing up in other societies is people. In many communities throughout the world, particularly in educational centers, can be found exchange students and teachers, professionals from abroad, families who have immigrated, natives who have lived abroad, and others who by experience are knowledgeable about other societies. Carefully planned interviews of persons who have been born and raised in or have lived in another culture can serve to enrich study of the printed word. Teams of students with members from several diverse countries can make studies of child-rearing practices in their countries, for instance, and develop insight into other societies and keener understanding of each person's own society through comparison.

Children's art, literature and folk stories, music traditionally taught to children, and children's games are all helpful in understanding the enculturating process in other societies and cultures, and materials are available on these topics.

For students who have learned how to study other cultures with sympathy and objectivity, minority cultures in each society represent important resources for cross-cultural learning. As a part of teacher education students can spend a period of time living with and observing the processes of socializing children in ghettos of major cities around the world, in tribal villages and in minority religious communities. For those students for whom living and study abroad are possible, similar experience is possible on an international basis.

A second illustrative topic of study in the foundations of education is that of the role of education in social change and development. Materials on social and cultural change prepared by sociologists and anthropologists for general readers and for introductory courses in the disciplines are of use in teacher training programs. George Foster's Traditional Cultures: and the Impact of Technological Change, Arensberg and Niehoff's Introducing Social Change and Daniel Lerner's The Passing of Traditional Society: Modernizing the Middle East are examples of materials of this kind. Others which deal specifically with education and change include: Margaret Read's Education and Change in Tropical Areas, Goodwin Watson's Change in School Systems (U.S.A.), Philip Foster's Education and Social Change in Ghana, Lawrence Gale's Education and Development in Latin America, James Coleman's Education and Political Development, Adams and Bjork's Education in Developing Areas, Edmund King's Education and Social Change, and Muhammad Shamsul Huq's Education and Development Strategy in South and Southeast Asia. Philip Coombs' World Crisis in Education is one of a number of recent works calling attention to education's inadequate response to the needs of the times, and Griffin and Spence's Cooperative International Education focuses on the need for greater cooperation among nations in educational development.

Again, the journals of the social and behavioral sciences and of education are replete with articles which students can use in researching particular aspects of social, cultural and educational change and development. Reports of the UNESCO conferences on educational planning at Karachi, Addis Ababa, Santiago, and other reports such as The Human Factor in the Development of the Newly Independent Countries are helpful.

At a time when traditional models of social and educational systems are being challenged everywhere it is important for teachers to be aware of experimental and revolutionary educational programs. Materials on Mahatma Gandhi's basic schools, on Ivan Illich's challenges to the applicability in developing countries of the traditional Western model of schools (which are available from the Center for Intercultural Documentation in Mexico), on the English primary and infant schools such as Beatrice and Ronald Gross' Radical School Reform, and on the "free school" in the United States as listed in A Bibliography for the Free School Movement published by the Summerhill Society of New York, are important.

Turning now to the second element of teacher education, studies of the organization, administration and curriculum development of the educational system, there is no limit to the materials and aids available to put study of these subjects on an international and cross-cultural basis. To begin with, comparative education textbooks are a handy source of information. They cover education in many countries and increasingly include coverage on a truly world-wide basis. They contain varying combinations of material on individual countries or areas of the world, cross-cultural studies of individual aspects of education such as higher education, and case studies in depth of particular problems in individual countries. Such textbooks as the following are available: Edmund King's Other Schools and Ours, Thut and Adams' Educational Patterns in Contemporary Societies, and Kazamias and Massialas' Tradition and Change in Education. George and Kathryn Beauchamp's Comparative Analysis of Curriculum Systems is particularly significant. Many other publications are available which deal with education in specific countries or areas of the world, or a particular aspect of education. The following are illustrative: George Bereday's The Changing Soviet School, the Plowden Report on primary education in England, W. R. Fraser's Education and Society in France, Rondal Anderson's Japan: Three Epochs of Modern Education, Sir Eric Ashby's Universities: British, Indian, African: A Study of the Ecology of Higher Education, S. N. Mukerjee's Education in India Today and Tomorrow, Okechukwu Ikejiani's Education in Nigeria, C. C. Haugeh's The Current Situation in Latin American Education, Andreas Kazamias' Education and the Quest for Modernity in Turkey, Joseph Katz' Canadian Education Today: a Symposium, V. T. Thayer's The Role of the School in American Society, and Chang-Tu Hu's Chinese Education under Communism. It is particularly helpful to use materials giving critical comment on an educational system from cross-cultural points of view. Stewart Fraser's American Education in Foreign Perspectives does this. The report of the study of achievement in mathematics in twelve countries, edited by Torsten Husen will be of particular interest.

Comparative education journals provide a variety of materials which will help prospective teachers gain a pluralistic view of education, such as the following selected articles: M. R. Lupul's "Education in Western Canada," S. C. Datta's "Trends in Adult Education in India," A. S. Phillips "Teacher Education in the British Caribbean," Marklund Sixten's "Educational Reform and Research in Sweden," Allan Cartter's "The Supply of and Demand for College Teachers," Toyomas Fuse's "Student Radicalism in Japan: A 'Cultural Revolution'?," Vincent Rogers' "English and American Primary Schools," H. Silvert's "Higher Education in Norway," S. Vivian's "In-service Education for Primary Teachers in Uganda," Osman Okyar's "Universities in Turkey," Little and Kallen's "Western European Secondary School Systems and Higher Education," Larry Skurnik's "Education and Examinations in the U.S.S.R.," Aklilu Habte's "Physical Education in Africa," Michael Anello's "Trends in Italian Higher Education," and M. Blaugh's "Approaches to Educational Planning." In addition, education journals published in each country are helpful resources for students looking at education across national frontiers.

These persons teaching and studying educational administration, curriculum development and educational guidance, for instance, should make extensive use of the several continuing sources of information on education in other countries. These include the several international journals of comparative education: the Comparative Education Review published by Teachers College, Columbia University in New York, the International Review of Education published by the UNESCO Institute for Education in Hamburg, Comparative Education published by the Pergamon Press, the Bulletin of the International Bureau of Education published in Geneva, the Bulletin of the International Association of Universities published in Paris, the International Journal of Adult and Youth Education published by UNESCO in Paris. Several yearbooks are important sources: the International Yearbook of Education published by UNESCO in Geneva, the World Yearbook of Education published by Evans Brothers in London, and their predecessors.

Turning now to the third element of professional studies in teacher education--teaching purposes, content, methods and materials--we come to the heart of the matter as regards education for international understanding and competence, and cross-cultural sensitivity. The use of materials to help teachers prepare to teach their subject with a world view and an appreciation of other societies and cultures depends on liberal and general education that is unhampered by parochial and provincial boundaries, on preparation in their subject matter specialization on a universal basis, as well as on an international approach to the professional elements of teacher education discussed above. During recent years considerable attention has been given to this aspect of international education, particularly in the United States, and many materials are available for use in courses on teaching. A number of special studies of the subject have been done by professional organizations and new agencies have been created to promote international education.

Among the general materials that are available, the following are illustrative: Percy Bidwell's Undergraduate Education in Foreign Affairs, Harold Taylor's The World as the American Teacher, Edward Weidner's The World Role of Universities, Kenneth Melvin's Education in World Affairs, Howard Anderson's Approaches to an Understanding of World Affairs, Education and World Affairs' The Professional School and World Affairs, Stuart Mudd's Conflict Resolution and World Education, and Scanlon and Shields' Problems and Prospects in International Education.

Books intended specifically for teachers include: Mary Renaud's Bringing the World into Your Classroom, Leonard Kenworthy's Social Studies in the Seventies, Oscar Handlin's Out of Many: A Study Guide to Cultural Pluralism in the United States, J. A. Lauwerys' History Textbooks and International Understanding, and UNESCO's International Understanding at School.

Prospective teachers should be made aware of the wide variety of materials for children and youth on other societies and peoples. A sampling only can be given here: Ina Corrine Brown's Understanding Other Cultures, Leon Clark's Through African Eyes: Cultures in Change, Colin Turnbull's The Forest People (Africa), Nancy Wilson Ross' Three Ways of Asian Wisdom: Hinduism, Buddhism Zen, Robert Hall's Japan: Industrial Power of Asia, Donald Robinson's As Others See Us: International Views of American History, Kumut Chandraung's My Boyhood in Siam, Isaak Digs' A Bedouin Boyhood, William Colford's Classic Tales of Spanish America, Benjamin Keen's Americans All: The Story of Our Latin American Neighbors, Kamala Marhandaya's Nectar in a Sieve, The Asia Society's An Introduction to the Dance of India, China, Korea and Japan, and Kenneth Crandall's The Impact of Islam on Christianity. These materials, for the most part, are for use in the social studies; others are available which deal with art, music, handicrafts and other creative aspects of life in various cultures, although more materials and aids are undoubtedly needed.

It is particularly important to introduce teachers in training to the many sources of materials and the tools available in identifying suitable materials. The following are illustrations: UNESCO has a series entitled: The Race Question in Modern Thought and many other materials and aids useful in teaching; James Gallagher's An Annotated Bibliography of Anthropological Materials for High School Use, is particularly helpful in schools attempting to bring this neglected social science into the curriculum; Leonard Kenworthy has prepared several guides to materials such as his Studying Africa in the Elementary and Secondary School, and his Free and Inexpensive Materials on World Affairs. Others include: Bernice Helff's Peoples of the Non-Western World through Books for Boys and Girls, Barry Beyer's Africa South of the Sahara: A Resource and Curriculum Guide, and Science Research Associates' kits of materials and instructions for conducting inter-nation simulation.

A final word is in order. The materials cited in this paper are intended only to illustrate what is available in relation to selected aspects of teacher education; there has been no attempt to be comprehensive or representative. It would appear to the writer, however, that ample materials are available for use in moving teacher education in the direction of a much needed breakthrough. Perhaps teacher education can capitalize on its focal position in the educational systems of nations and help move the world more rapidly towards the kind of cross-cultural understanding and global unity so desperately needed.

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN UNDERGRADUATE & GRADUATE PROGRAMS

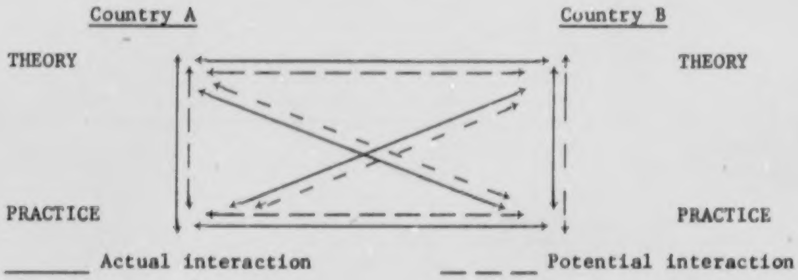
W. D. Halls
Oxford, England

The problem which has to be treated--the place of comparative studies in the education of educators--raises a most fundamental question: what is comparative education, and why teach it at all? This is not the place to answer the first question in detail: books have been, and are being written upon the subject. Nevertheless, it is important to clarify what the generic term 'comparative education' includes, and what sub-definitions may be given of it. Used in a very limited sense, 'comparative studies in education' is an appellation confined to the study of countries with educational systems at parallel stages of development, and which are therefore truly comparable. Thus, for example, the industrial nations of the Western hemisphere are comparable individual educational entities, as are many of the emergent nations of Africa or Asia. 'Comparative education', however, also includes international education, which may be defined as the study of international educational institutions, from UNESCO to the International Baccalaureate.[1] A third sub-division is of course development education, or the study and planning of educational systems in emergent systems in relation to industrial systems. This paper will look at undergraduate and graduate programs only in relation to the first two aspects: comparative studies and international education. Truly comparative studies, in the sense in which they have just been defined, can take place only between educational phenomena that are comparable in reality. Two countries with educational systems as similar as possible are thus compared with the object of explaining not only why similarities exist between them, but also by pinpointing and explaining differences. Likewise international education studies the impact of international educational phenomena on a variety of cultures and educational systems. Why should, however, these two aspects of comparative education in fact form part of the education of teachers and educators?

Lord Acton said that our studies ought to be all but purposeless: learning is for its own sake, and may be marginally for the benefit of others. The comparative method--and comparative studies are largely merely a method or a particular way of looking at educational phenomena--are one way at which one may arrive at some measure of truth or certainty. The comparative method, however, of looking at educational phenomena can rate no more highly--nor, conversely, any less highly--than any other, whether this be philosophical, historical, sociological or psychological. In some respects, moreover, it is an eclectic amalgam of the philosophical, historical and sociological (the psychological domain is here excluded). Yet the ultimate ground of the comparative method in education is none of these modes of thinking, but is rather cultural: it endeavours to explain differences in educational phenomena, no less than their similarities, by reference to the totality of culture. He who would attempt comparative education must therefore begin by studying cultures, both in their historical and contemporary manifestations.

So understood, comparative education as a field of academic concern (one shuns the use of the word 'discipline'), embracing the ideas and feelings of mankind in all their multitudinous facets and relating them to education, is a study as rewarding and as valid as any other, whether it be classics or archaeology. Like education tout court it is not, and cannot be, a discipline, because it lacks a recognised framework. (This does not detract from its validity; increasingly the validity of studies that include elements of a large number of disciplines is being accepted). For the future teacher, therefore, comparative studies may be considered as an element in a liberal education, one which, because it is ultimately grounded on different cultures, should contribute to the shedding of ethnocentric attitudes, national prejudices and cultural bias and lead him to take a broader and less partial view of his future task--an essential quality in the enlightened teacher. When comparative studies are coupled with some study of international educational institutions the teacher is given a conspectus that is invaluable in his teaching, which necessarily occurs within a national framework.

However valuable it may be as a constituent of a liberal education, comparative education has nevertheless a more immediate purpose. It has--and this is more likely to appeal to hardbitten organisers of teacher training courses--great practical utility. Almost every finding in comparative education might be put to some use. Thus many comparative studies can, and should be, conducted with frankly meliorist aims in mind: how, by the study of foreign educational systems, may our own system be improved? The success of some pedagogical method or some administrative system, albeit in a different cultural context, gives rise to a prima facie assumption that it may be equally successful at home. The same is equally true of an educational idea. One thinks of the thinking behind the Swedish post-war reforms, which, it is alleged, owed something to English educational thinking at the end of the war. (The difference was, of course, that the Swedes were much more prone to action than were the English). There is no doubt also that the reform of Italian lower secondary education was greatly influenced by the new structures of secondary schooling introduced by de Gaulle in France. The polytechnical principle, springing from educational thinking in Eastern Europe, is presently being adapted in the West in the form of 'work introductory' courses. Testing as an assessment technique, which originated in France, crossed the Atlantic and is currently making the crossing from West to East once more. So also is the useful concept of taxonomies of educational objectives in curriculum development. The undergraduate student requires to have such examples pointed out to him, and to study how ideas and practices in education are modified as they cross cultural and national boundaries. He needs to study the causes and conditions for success of the introduction of some educational innovation in a different context, and, if possible, to speculate upon the possibility of making innovations in this way. Not only successful features, moreover, are relevant. The failure of some educational enterprise in one country may also be instructive. An analysis of unsuccessful educational experiments made elsewhere may avoid others making the same mistake. Viewed in this light, therefore, comparative studies may be seen as an element in sound educational planning, in which theory and practice in two different cultural and educational environments interacting so as to stimulate reform:



Here also it may be useful to refer to the salutary distinction drawn by Professor Edwards at the annual meeting this year of the American Comparative Education Society. He differentiated between what he termed 'comparative pedagogy' and what he termed 'comparative education'.[2] The one would refer to what Arnold Anderson has designated as 'intra-educational analysis', and the other to Anderson's 'educational-societal analysis'.[3] The main concern of those who have interested themselves in comparative studies has been comparative pedagogy; they have been reluctant to look at education cross-culturally and cross-nationally in relation to the totality of society. Perhaps it is nevertheless right that in undergraduate programs the main concentration should be on comparative pedagogy--although this does not preclude general surveys as well. But it is of obvious utility to the future teacher to concern himself cross-nationally with problems of didactics, special subject methodology and even curriculum content. The intending science specialist requires to look closely at the teaching approaches to his subject that have been developed elsewhere. The budding history teacher might well be put to work comparing the specific treatment of themes in different national textbooks--the way, for example, in which French and English textbook writers handle the Napoleonic era is still poles apart. He could only gain in impartiality and greater freedom from national bias. Likewise, in the teaching of foreign languages cross-fertilisation is fruitful: one thinks of the breakthrough brought about in the early 1960s, when language teachers in the industrialised countries realised that their problems were often similar to those experienced by teachers of English and French in the emergent nations. The work done under the auspices of the Council of Europe in the analysis of the content of programs at the secondary level[4] on a comparative basis has stimulated interest in program revision in some European countries. It would seem that comparative pedagogy on these or similar lines should be fostered in undergraduate programs. At the same time, however, all intending teachers, as part of their professional orientation, require to be made aware of the larger differences between educational systems in such matters as administration and control, educational structures and curricula patterns, to name only the bare minimum.

Graduate courses in comparative education would seem to fall into two kinds: non-specialist or specialist. The non-specialist course is designed for those whose major interest lies elsewhere. Some knowledge of what occurs in countries other than his own would seem vital for the graduate majoring in the sociology of education, educational administration or educational planning.[5] (The student concentrating on curriculum development would automatically continue the undergraduate studies he had begun in his studies of comparative pedagogy). The comparative element in such non-specialist courses is of course slanted towards the student's main speciality and a thematic approach is advocated.

The general approach to comparative studies for the specialist is probably more controversial. If one believes, with Arnold Anderson, that "The ultimate aim of comparative education, like that of any other analysis of the social world, is knowledge of causation,"[6] two lines of approach would appear possible. The first may be termed the 'disciplinary' approach. The second may be designated as essentially 'culturalist'. Although, in the interests of academic rigour, one is tempted to plump for the first, it may well be the second that is eventually more rewarding.

What has been termed the 'disciplinary' approach postulates that the methods of the social sciences are those most appropriate, particularly because they are largely amenable to quantification. The relationship of comparative education to the social sciences, and particularly sociology and economics, has always been a difficult one to define: Noah and Eckstein[7] have recently come out strongly in favour of what may be termed the use of statistical methods; the I.E.A. project represents the most ambitious cross-cultural effort yet to arrive at quantifiable data. The argument would seem to be in favour of a 'scientification' of comparative education. There are, for example, a number of indicators of educational systems--such, for instance, as the numbers enrolled at different levels of education--which may be used as comparative data. Hypotheses may be set up to be proved or disproved--mainly the latter, for the formulators of hypotheses always prefer to confirm what they postulate!--and from these comparative conclusions may be drawn regarding matters such as the 'efficiency' or the 'productivity' of educational systems. The value of such handy indices is undeniable. But the indicators themselves, no matter how exact they may be, and the hypotheses, no matter how refined, nevertheless can never represent more than 'a partial aspect of a multiple reality'.[8] Can one, for example, really measure the advantages conferred by the possession of a General Certificate of Education qualification in a small Central African state with those (much less) conferred upon the holder in Britain? Another simple example may be even more cogent: studying two countries of similar population size one may find that the numbers of women entering higher education in both are approximately equal. Looking at the raw data alone, one might therefore conclude that, in this one aspect, the emancipation of women had reached the same degree of development. If, however, one discovers that the one country is Moslem and the other Christian, it might well be legitimate to conclude that the first country is advancing more rapidly to emancipation, given all the circumstances, than the second. One must, in fact, avoid comparing incomparable things, or--an even more difficult task--not fail to compare things really comparable. Using solely the kind of social or economic indicators valid in a national or unicultural context as the main data of comparison, partly because they are easily quantifiable, can only lead to superficiality. A more general example may emphasise this: rationality demands that the demand for education be satisfied on the most efficient cost basis. In practice this is never the case. Other factors not quantifiable, such as the esteem in which education is held, social class distinctions, and historical tradition, are always more potent than the rational and quantifiable norms associated with cost. The lesson is surely that the qualitative factors, which are inevitably more important, must be studied in order to analyse the real values and actual practices that are concealed and often falsified in statistical observations--or, for that matter, in legislative texts. For these reasons, whilst the graduate specialising in comparative education must be familiar with the methods of the social sciences--and in particular sociology--and be able to 'read' statistical data intelligently, he must not rely on these alone.

A parenthesis may here be opened regarding methodology in comparative education in general. Perhaps too much time has in the past been spent upon this in abstracto. Advances in other fields of knowledge have been made by those in the vanguard using any methods, including those of more established disciplines, that came to hand. Methods that are appropriate will emerge as comparative studies are being carried out. One would do well to remember the words of Andrewski regarding comparative sociology:

> . . . the history of the natural sciences shows that no advances were made by people who tried to apply conceptual frameworks: the great discoverers were interested in how and why things happen, and in order to find out they had recourse to any helpful ideas or techniques which they knew. The conceptual frameworks of the sciences

> grew by accumulation and ordering of correct solutions of definite problems.[9]

This means, in other words, that to seek to 'force' frameworks of reference or to apply conceptual systems which patently do not fit the educational data is nothing but sterile logomachy. In view of this graduate programs should, in the present writer's opinion, be more concerned with carrying out comparative studies than with the discussion of method.

In contrast to the 'disciplinary' approach, which, it is maintained, gives only a partial view of reality, the culturalist approach views education primarily as a cultural phenomenon. It is characterised by the attempt to penetrate the culture of an area or national entity at as deep a level and on as wide a front as possible. Every manifestation of the culture, both in the historical and the contemporary setting, must be systematically considered in relation to education. Moreover, since education even today is still primarily concerned with the intellect, it is particularly vital to study all intellectual aspects of the culture. Only when the foreign educational system has been studied in this way can true comparisons with one's own system really begin to be made--it is of course assumed that at least as adequate a knowledge has been acquired of one's own culture. In graduate programs it would appear to be this kind of limited or regional comparison which would be not only the most stimulating academically, but also the most rewarding in utilitarian terms.

Such regional studies will inevitably make great demands upon both teachers and students. Both must be, in fact, potential polymaths. A good knowledge of the social sciences is, as stated above, assumed. They must also have a good grasp of the multifarious manifestations of at least two cultures, ranging from history to politics, from philosophy to literature. Whereas in undergraduate programs broad surveys may be acceptable as an introduction to the field, at graduate level a high degree of specialisation is required over a very narrow field--perhaps two or three cultural systems other than one's own at the most. The aim must be to inculcate in the future specialist in comparative education study habits that will serve him in good stead when he wishes to undertake scholarship of his own. (This of course implies at least a reading knowledge of the language in which the foreign culture is expressed.) He must be continually exhorted, as Sir Michael Sadler said, "to look beyond the bricks and mortar" to the reality which any educational system represents. Such studies should of course be backed up by as much field work as possible.

The culturalist approach has nevertheless its dangers. A particular one is the tendency to generalise unduly. Numerous writers, for example, have said of French education that it esteems mental prowess, is over-intellectualist, prone to abstractions, authoritarian, dogmatic or bureaucratic--a few of the less complimentary traits usually cited. Some then go on to relate these to a large abstraction dubbed 'French culture', which after a few visits to France is perhaps related to an even vaguer concept termed 'the French personality'. Some qualitative 'judgements in a nutshell' have been termed by one writer 'touristic ethnology', which would appear to be our old enemy in comparative education, 'national character' in a fresh guise. Over-generalisations of a qualitative kind can lead to as great pitfalls as the effort to rely unduly upon statistical data.

What should ultimately emerge from a specialist graduate program in comparative education? One may well continue Anderson's quotation,[10]

> Ultimately it (comparative education) will have both practical and theoretical significance insofar as it succeeds in providing reliable maps for locating congruent educational practices appropriate to coping with the tasks laid upon schools by a society.

Thus, by studying what is part or contemporary the future may be planned--and not by mere extrapolation. Daniel Bell postulates that we shall soon be living in a post-industrial society in which the average person will have to work only 1,100 hours a year, in a four-day working week, with three months' holiday out of twelve.[11] If this be true, education will be as much for leisure and pleasure as for work. This is a subject that might well occupy doctoral students in comparative education, who might write papers on the theme just as the budding architect draws plans for new buildings that he may one day be in a position to realise. Specialist programs in comparative education in fact chime well with educational planning in general. Moreover, by training, the comparative educator may well be more capable of avoiding the kind of ethical commitment of which other educators are often guilty. The comparative educationist can and must remain neutral--the very nature of his task, the comparing of different educational phenomena should facilitate this neutrality.

W. D. HALLS - University Department of Educational Studies,
Oxford, England.

FOOTNOTES

[1] cf. A General Guide to the International Baccalaureate, International Baccalaureate Office, Geneva, 1970.

[2] R. Edwards, Presidential Address to the Annual Meeting of the Comparative and International Educational Society of North America, 1970. (To be published in the *Comparative Education Review*).

[3] C. Arnold Anderson, 'Methodology of Comparative Education,' *International Review of Education*, 7 (1961), 1-23.

[4] e.g., W. D. Halls and Doreen Humphreys, European Curriculum Studies No. 1: Mathematics, Coundil for Cultural Cooperation, Strasbourg, 1967.

P. Story, European Curriculum Studies No. 2: Latin, Council for Cultural Cooperation, Strasbourg, 1968.

W. D. Halls, Modern Languages and Education in Western Europe, London, 1970.

Further comparative studies made by the Oxford/Council of Europe Study for the Evaluation of the Curriculum and Examinations (OCESCE Study), on physics, chemistry and biology are in the press and will be published by the Council for Cultural Cooperation shortly.

[5] An example of how programs work in practice may be useful. At Oxford University Department of Educational Studies there are no undergraduate programs. Comparable to the North American undergraduate programs, however, may be the one-year professional course for graduates preparing to enter teaching. All students have a general survey course on selected topics in comparative education; a large number also opt to offer as an examination exercise a long paper in comparative studies, which is very often concerned with problems of comparative pedagogy relevant to their future professional role.

Apart from doctoral research in comparative education, a number of graduate advanced courses in sociology of education, educational administration and educational planning are also offered: in each of these an option in comparative studies is available which is geared to the appropriate course.

[6] C. Arnold Anderson, *op cit*.

[7] H. J. Noah and M. A. Eckstein, *Toward a Science of Comparative Education*, New York, 1969.

[8] For much of the discussion at this point the writer is indebted to P. Bourdieu and J.C. Passeron, 'La comparabilitè des systemes d'enseignement,' in R. Castel and J.C. Passeron, *Education*, développement et démocratie, Cahiers du Centre de Sociologie Européenne, Paris, 1967, pp. 21-60.

[9] S. Andrewski, *Elements of Comparative Sociology*, London, p. 25.

See also, for a ciscussion on method, W. D. Halls, "Comparative Education: Explorations," *Comparative Education* (Oxford), 3 (3), 1967, pp. 189-195.

[10] C. Arnold Anderson, *op. cit*.

[11] D. Bell, "Die nachindustrielle Gesellschaft," in Das 198, Jahrzehnt: Eine Team-Prognose für 1970 bis 1980, Hamburg, 1970, p. 359.

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS[1]

Torsten Husén,
School of Education,
University of Stockholm, Sweden

Whatever criteria we employ, we shall find that both comparative and international education have emerged as disciplines in their own right after 1945. Educational issues since then have rapidly moved up to the international level. Before then they were treated as local, provincial or, at most, national problems. International cooperation, interchange of experiences, and technical assistance to developing countries now occur on a scale that would have been inconceivable twenty-five years ago. This tremendous change stems from several causes of which the following seem to me to be the most important.

When economists in highly industrialized countries began to show (or think that they had shown) that education is more than mere consumption, but also accounted for a considerable portion of the economic growth, national and international bodies were spurred to invest more in education in both advanced and developing countries in order to boost the economic growth rate. Thus, for instance, the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) after its policy conference in Washington D.C. in 1961 has devoted increasing efforts in its member countries to investigations of how the productivity of the educational systems could be enhanced in order to achieve an increased economic growth. The World Bank has begun to give high priority to loans to school systems in developing countries.

Education is more and more regarded as a "propelling force" in modern society as well as an outcome of a higher standard of living. Thus, education is both partly cause and partly effect in the intricate fabric of social change. The founding of an organization like UNESCO was accompanied by great expectations as to what education could accomplish in the world's developing areas. At conferences organized by UNESCO in Addis Ababa and Karachi, highly ambitious targets were set for the elimination of illiteracy in Africa and Asia. These targets have then been scaled down to more realistic levels as a result of, among other things, the realization of the fact that education, particularly formal education is not only producing social and economic changes but also--and perhaps to a larger extent--is a consequence of them. During the 1960's this insight has been instrumental in giving birth to a new discipline--educational planning, with special application to developing countries. Educational planning represents a confluence of theory and empirical findings from comparative education, economics, demography, anthropology and the history of education.

Due to greater geographic mobility and the expansion of markets and means of communication an increased international exchange of students has occurred, for the most part at the university level but to no small extent in secondary schooling as well. By the end of the 1960's more than 100,000 foreign students were enrolled at American universities. The figure for Europe was roughly 75,000. More and more young people are taking studies abroad in a language other than their mother tongue. Indeed, we are heading for an internationalized world where a large segment of education will have to cross frontiers in order to make it serviceable. This is especially true for young people from small countries.

In response to a mounting need to establish international standards for the evaluation of the quality of degrees and diplomas and proficiency in specific subjects, various new initiatives have been taken. There is a strong need for establishing international standards at the pre-university level in order to make it easier for institutions of higher learning to evaluate the qualifications attained in the secondary academic school in one system in terms of another country's requirements. Under a grant from the Ford Foundation an attempt is under way by a project-group in Geneva to establish requirements for an "international baccalaureate." The research initiated ten years ago by the International Association for the

---

[1] Invited paper presented at the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies in Ottawa, Canada, August 20, 1970.

Evaluation of Educational Achievement (I.E.A.) emerged partly in this context. One by-product of I.E.A. surveys in mathematics, science and other subject areas has been to define operationally and more exactly international performance standards by devising international tests based upon analyses of national curricula and work carried out by international expert committees.

Comparative education has evolved as a fully-fledged discipline only since 1945. Before then, and still to some extent, it was mainly addressed to general descriptions of educational systems in different countries and juxtaposition of these descriptions. Nowadays greater scope is given to analyses which permit generalizations as to how various social, economic, and pedagogic factors shape educational systems. Countries differ from one another in terms of school structure, curricula, and methods of instruction. They also differ in terms of the socio-politico-economic matrix in which the school system operates. Since many of the factors both on the "input" and "output" side vary more between than within countries, an international analysis permits a better grasp of what "produces" a certain educational outcome than an analysis confined to one national system only. Comparative education can also replicate studies in different national settings and thereby to arrive at generalizations which could not be drawn from single country studies.

I think that this background should be kept in mind when we set out to discuss the proper role of comparative and international education in teacher training. Even in a world with self-contained countries without international migration and exchange, comparative education would, of course, just as the history and philosophy of education contribute to give the teacher a better and more detached perspective on his own educational system and thereby on his task. But the rapidly increased internationalization, not least in terms of making the professional training marketable outside the particular country where the prospective teacher happened to be trained, one could indeed make a case for a thorough course in comparative education with tangible and pragmatic objectives. However, we cannot expect a teaching candidate to become a better classroom instructor in terms of being able to impart knowledge more efficiently just because he has taken courses in comparative education. The same would of course apply to the study of the history or the philosophy of education. But the evaluation of teacher training programs suggest that even such a highly tangible area it would seem as educational psychology does not seem to bear any conclusive relationship to short-range criteria of teaching competence.

Nevertheless, we have not allowed such negative findings to discourage us to the extent of abolishing certain courses in education given in the framework of teacher training. In spite of everything, we hope, and sometimes even take for granted, that certain academic coursework in education will have long-range effects in terms of determining the prospective teacher's frame of mind, his attitudes and general outlook in a way that is conducive to, for instance, increased international understanding and heightened readiness to accept innovations.

Let me try to be more specific and spell out what I think that a course in comparative education should aim at achieving.

(1) The over-riding objective should be to open the student's perspective and to prevent the ethnocentric provincialism that often prevails among educators, particularly when it comes to evaluate students from other school systems. By learning about other educational systems the student is brought to regard the world as a big educational laboratory in which highly different structural and pedagogical practices are employed. The mere juxtaposition of the various systems can contribute to a more realitivistic and less dogmatic attitude toward educational practices. Thus, comparative education contributes to broadening the perspective on educational issues, as the teaching of the history and philosophy of education similarly does. It thereby also contributes to achieving international understanding in an era of rapidly increased international contacts.

(2) Comparative education should contribute to a deeper understanding of how the educational systems operate within the greater framework of the socio-politico-economic systems at large. One is repeatedly struck by the fact that educators tend to conceive of education as if it operated in a social vacuum. This one experiences so frequently that one is led to believe that this is a kind of professional disease. An illustration might suffice in this connection. The problem of structural change from a selective and dualistic system into a comprehensive and unitary one in several countries in Western Europe has, as you all know,

been accompanied by rather heated debate. On the part of the educators the argument has almost throughout been confined to the pedagogic sphere. Up to what age is it possible to keep the "academic" and "practical" pupils together in the same classroom? To what extent will the able pupils be hampered by their less able classmates? Rather seldom does one find in educational circles, attempts to judge the merits or drawbacks of the two systems in terms of social and economic factors. When Jackson carried out his study of streaming in England and assessed the teachers' opinions on it, he found that the great majority were in favour of this practice because of its supposed pedagogic merits. The bright pupils could move ahead and the dull ones did not have to become discouraged by the presence of their more successful classmates.

(3) Comparative education, at least when based upon cross-national empirical data, can help us to kill quite a lot of educational folklore. Particularly in times of political crises there is a tendency to pass judgement on the relative merits of various systems and/or practices on the basis of extremely thin evidence, and in the last run recourse is taken to pure folklore. The reaction in the United States after the first Sputnik is a case in point. Soon after the launching a stream of American educators began breathlessly to head for the Soviet Union. What previously had been close to high treason now suddenly began to be regarded as highest virtue. Prestige figures started to compare education in the United States with that in the European countries. Admiral Rickover maintained that the educational system in the old imperial Germany was so good that it was copied in many places and still deserved to be emulated. One could not avoid wondering, how the German humanistisches Gymnasium would have been able to produce among other things the technologists and scientists that Rickover maintained were so badly needed in order to build submarines. Typical for quite a lot of comparative judgements passed on the quality of education in various countries is that comparisons are made between the end-products, i.e., graduating students, without a slightest thought about how many of a given pool of students have been brought so far. The price paid for the quality, in terms of grade-repeating and drop-out is very seldom taken into account. Almost never are the social and economic implications and consequences of a certain structural set-up or a certain curriculum considered.

So far, I have stated objectives which are common to all national teacher education, irrespective of whether it is pre-service or in-service education. But during the last two decades there has been a growing need for a pool of international educators, suitable for work particularly in developing countries. In order to train them properly, one has to emphasize more their social role as promoters of change than their role as transmitters of knowledge. The urgent need to provide professional training of educators qualified for work in international assistance training programs has been met by courses organized at universities in several countries. Educators who take assignments in developing countries or otherwise going in for international work should learn to look upon the educational systems as integral parts of socio-economic and cultural systems. Such a training has to a very large extent to be cross-disciplinary. It has as a rule post-graduate status with advanced degrees granted on the basis of courses completed in comparative education, sociology, anthropology and economics.

How then, should we try to achieve the objectives of comparative education outlined above?

(1) I cannot see how we could possibly avoid the traditional lecture course in comparative education plus the assigned reading. Now, and in the foreseeable future, reading books and being stimulated (hopefully) by somebody commenting upon them is still for the student of comparative education the main road to insights. This does not prevent us from improving our traditional courses in comparative education. Quite a lot of them, I suspect, have been rather dull, not least because of the tremendous amount of badly structured descriptive information they have tried to convey.

(2) A certain amount of what sometimes in a derogatory way is referred to as "educational tourism" could be helpful. By seeing for oneself, i.e., by visiting schools and talking to teachers in other countries a more concrete picture can be obtained.

(3) A more advanced type of "educational tourism" is represented by teacher exchange. The main problem in expanding the existing program has not been one of differences in curricula between countries, but simply stems from language difficulties. Language teachers from countries where none of the main world languages are spoken could not take exchange assignments in for instance English--or French-speaking countries since they are not trained in other subject areas, such as science or social studies.

For various reasons it seems more fruitful to put more emphasis on comparative education in in-service instead of pre-service training. During the pre-service training the prospective teacher's mind is primarily preoccupied with problems of classroom management, discipline and methods of instruction, so that comparative education and related areas of education as a discipline seem rather irrelevant to his classroom task.

What should be the proper outline of a syllabus in comparative education? It would be preposterous if I tried to be very specific here for the simple reason that my experience is too limited.

(1) If we want to convey to the students how education is related to economic and social change, it is advantageous if the course in comparative education is planned in close cooperation with the ones in educational sociology and the history of education. Topics where such a cooperation would seem to be fruitful are for example the emerging elementary education in Western Europe and how it is related to industrialization, polytechnic education in the Soviet Union or the role of the school as an agent of Americanization in the U.S.A. A case study which hopefully could convey a deeper understanding of the socio-economic relationship is provided by Japanese educational development.

(2) The final aim in teaching comparative education, as has been emphasized several times, is to bring about a deeper understanding of the factors moulding the educational systems. Therefore, efforts should be made to avoid the abundance of more or less unstructured descriptive material which make some texts in comparative education bits of canned food. Descriptive material has of course to be presented but it has to be made available under such headings as to make it ready not only for juxtaposition but also for closer analysis.

One major topical area is represented by the organizational structures in terms of types of schools covering what ages and what grades. In order to understand structures one also ought to know about admissions, enrolments and transfers from one stage or one type to another. A study of current structural change in Europe could profit highly by focussing on the problems of selective versus comprehensive education. In this connection particular attention has to be given to the relation between education and social mibility. Admission to the university-preparing secondary schools and to the universities themselves is another area which entails quite a lot of interesting social problems related to education. I have found that comparisons between countries in terms of grade-repeating and drop-out rates are highly conducive to further inquiry. This also applies to statistics about how various socio-economic groups are represented in academic secondary schools and at universities.

The curricular problems pertaining to subject areas, number of hours of instruction, and, not least, outlines of syllabi could serve as means of achieving an undogmatic state of mind in looking at educational problems. Not seldom syllabi in one's own country are looked upon as though they were metaphysically given to change them therefore is as sacrilege.

Administration and the decision-making process, both one that entails long-range policy-making and one concerning the day-to-day operations of an educational system is another area which also can lead to fruitful discussion and thereby to deeper understanding of the role of education in the society of today.

For a long time we badly needed suitable texts, both those which focussed on a systematic presentation of facts about structure, enrollment, curriculum, etc., and those which tried to present comparative education as a structured discipline. Descriptive material collated by organizations, UNESCO, Council of Europe and OECD has been made available in impressive publications. But the material going into these publications is based upon information obtained from the ministries of education or other official agencies. As a rule it has to be cleared through the respective governments before publication. In many cases more reliable material could have been obtained from other sources. This does not necessarily imply that material included in the publications referred to is faked but simply that there is difficulty in establishing a strict comparability. We still lack an international terminology which would be lead to more adequate comparisons at the pure descriptive-statistical level. In recent years a series of texts, such as the ones by Bereday (1964), Noah and Eckstein (1969) and Coombs (1969) are available for teaching undergraduate courses in comparative education in a more systematic and integrated way. In all three cases referred to, the authors have been able to get away from the pure descriptive approach and aim at a deeper understanding, by taking into account the social and economic dimensions of the educational systems.

For a long time the descriptive historico-philosophical approach prevailed in the teaching of comparative education. Students have had to read texts describing the education in one country after another, sometimes with comments on historic background and its relationship to current religious and philosophical beliefs. One present trend is to make comparative education more empirical and thereby to bring it into closer contact with the social sciences. Such a trend is promoted by the attempts to measure educational outcomes in terms of international standards but is also inspired by experience gained in providing technical assistance in education which have to go hand in hand with attempts to seek hard facts.

The time has passed when a teacher is trained merely in order to fit a closely circumscribed national system of education. In our era teaching skills and related competencies will have to be made transferable and available for international use. The time might come sooner than we can imagine when a massive transfer of teachers from developed to developing countries will have to take place. In a shrinking world, teacher education must break its provincialism and open up international perspectives. Comparative education certainly could be instrumental in achieving this.

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

William H. E. Johnson
University of Pittsburgh

In the summer of 1949, the American Council on Education convened at Estes Park, Colorado, a conference on The Role of Colleges and Universities in International Understanding.[1] In his preface to the published report of this conference, Dr. George F. Zook, then president of A.C.E., defined the responsibility of American institutions of higher learning as three-fold:

> To develop in every student, faculty member, and person in the college community an understanding of international affairs and a will to build for peace;
>
> To provide adequate professional preparation for the increasing number of individuals employed in foreign service; and
>
> To cooperate with governmental and intergovernmental agencies and voluntary organizations in programs to foster world-mindedness and international cooperation.[2]

Despite the passage of two decades, the incursion of tumultuous and often unforeseen events, and the rise of serious domestic problems to challenge American colleges and universities, these three guide-lines seem as valid today as when they were written twenty-one years ago last week.[3]

While the A.C.E. Report certainly provided much excellent counsel and was undoubtedly based upon considerable investigation of the situation then prevailing in our higher institutions, it did not provide any specific or tangible data on this subject. However, a fairly comprehensive survey was initiated by the Carnegie Corporation in 1958 and published four years later.[4] From this study we learn that, even at the advent of the 1960's, there was a most discouraging amount of ignorance of international affairs among our undergraduates, especially those preparing to be teachers. Not only did these students score lowest on tests in competition with majors in Engineering, Liberal Arts and Business, but those in teachers colleges ranked below students in all other types of institutions![5] That much of the fault lay in the institutions themselves is indicated by the fact that 75 per cent of all prospective teachers were permitted to graduate with "less than ten semester hours in courses directly related to foreign affairs."[6]

Since my own teaching for the past fifteen years has been confined entirely to the graduate level, I have not followed the progress which has undoubtedly been made in undergraduate teaching since either of these studies appeared. Also, my own research has been in the area of Eastern European education, and I am not fully acquainted with the manner in which even our graduate programs in education have dealt with this problem on a national scale. But I am one of the founders of the Comparative and International Education Society of the U. S. A., have served as its president and currently am one of its Board members as well as one of its official delegates to this conference, and I have been immensely encouraged by its rapid growth in membership and activities during the past dozen years. Looking beyond the borders of my own country (would I dare fail to do so here?), we have seen the founding of similar societies in this country, in England, and in several nations of Europe, including Czechoslovakia who was host last year to an international conference on education. From such evidence it can be safely concluded that Dr. Zook's first maxim has been realized to a considerable extent. There are many thousands of members of college communities who are not only interested in but enthusiastic about the subject of Comparative Education and determined to arouse in their students the same enthusiasm.

There is one more area on which I feel somewhat qualified to speak, and that is the development of interest in international affairs at my own university, particularly in the realm of teacher education. In selecting just this institution I am guided by no wish to exhibit ethnocentrism for I know full well that there are representatives here whose faculties have accomplished as much, if not more, during the past decade. But one can speak best of what he knows best, and for me that must be the University of Pittsburgh in whose School of Education I have served for nearly fifteen years as a teacher of courses in Comparative Education. Therefore, I ask your indulgence while I devote a few words to my observations since I joined the staff there in 1956.

At that time, there was one course in Comparative Education in the entire university; now there are more than thirty in the School of Education alone. That one course in 1956 was offered once a year with an average enrollment of twenty students; now over 300 attend courses which are given throughout the year. The rise in student interest has been matched by faculty activity: When I first came to the University I was looked upon by my colleagues in the School of Education as a weird sort of fellow who had made many trips to foreign lands; this summer I have been unable to leave my office for a weekend because the Dean, both Associate Deans, all other Division Chairmen, and most other Department Heads were taking students on educational tours or doing their own research projects in countries ranging from Afghanistan to Venezuela and from Austria to Zambia. And why not? With the Chancellor in Thailand and both Vice-Chancellors on a trip round the world, what harm was there in such proliferated absenteeism? One July day several years ago I almost had to lay the cornerstone of a new building because I was the highest ranking officer to be found on the campus! So much for Dr. Zook's first directive as it has affected the college community at Pittsburgh.

Ten years ago we were just beginning to realize our responsibilities regarding his second plea which was for better-trained personnel in foreign service. Since then, our program in International and Development Education has been established and expanded to twelve faculty members who have prepared many qualified employees for posts in A.I.D., UNESCO, The State Department, the Fulbright programs, the International Division of the U.S. Office of Education, and other agencies. This task could not have been accomplished had we not followed Dr. Zook's third suggestion by establishing close relations with several other departments within the University, particularly the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs, the Language and Area Studies programs, the Library and Information Sciences staff, the Department of Linguistics, the several schools of the Health Professions, and most departments in the Social Sciences. Such cooperation has recently become much more effective by the creation of the University Center for International Studies, and has now been extended to include common projects with the programs in Asian Studies, Russian and East European Studies, and Latin American Studies, as well as those in Comparative Communism and Advanced Industrial Societies. In many of these endeavors, the University collaborates with other local institutions of higher learning by sharing faculty members, students and material resources. Furthermore, through the Regional Council for International Education, the University cooperates with forty other institutions in the tri-state area of Western Pennsylvania, Ohio and West Virginia.[7] Nevertheless, all that has been accomplished merely emphasizes the great distance we still must go to reach the point of a fully-informed and internationally concerned population.

I have said that Dr. Zook's three points can still be pertinent guides for us today. But are there still other goals toward which we must strive, other values in the study of comparative and international education which we can stress? For a long time it has seemed to me that we have ignored one of the truly great potentials in the field, that of greater self-realization and self-appreciation. I am perfectly willing to admit that the organizational and institutional aspects of international understanding are vital because only through these channels can the individual function satisfactorily with others in programs of action, of achieving, or doing. But what about that other important dimension of personality which we call being? Despite the active interest of many social, behavioral and developmental psychologists in the field of comparative education, we seldom hear about the personal benefit to the individual which may accrue from such study. It is ironic, for example, that at an international conference on educational research held last year in Warsaw, only one paper out of forty mentioned the value of international understanding in "The All-Round and Harmonious Development of Personality," and that paper was read by the delegate from the Soviet Union![8]

I mean no disrespect to the memory of John F. Kennedy when I say that it is not enough to stress what such study can do for our country or for the world. We must also emphasize what it can do for the person, the individual, the human being himself. I firmly believe that most people who undertake, even semi-seriously, the study of the processes of education operating in other cultures, do become better persons and thus better doctors, or lawyers, or teachers. While the results of such internal improvement may be difficult to discern in the first two instances, the direct benefits are easily recognizable in the teaching profession.

To focus my argument more closely upon the theme of this session, I say that if a teacher understands another culture he is twice blessed, for such experience makes him understand better his own. If he is informed about young people in another society, he can relate better to the students in his own classroom. And if he knows how members of the rising generation in other nations are being educated he will be in a better position to foresee and to prepare his own students for the shape of things to come. If a teacher can feel that he is actually doing this, he has not only found joy in living and teaching; he has found one form of immortality.

REFERENCES

[1] Reports of Committees and Conferences (A.C.E.), Series I, Number 38, Volume XIII, October 1949.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. iii-iv.

[3] The Preface is Dated August 11, 1949.

[4] Percy W. Bidwell, *Undergraduate Education in Foreign Affairs*, King's Crown Press, New York, 1962.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 149-151.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

[7] *International and Development Education Program*, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh, July 1970. Copies of this brochure are available at the Registration Desk of the Conference.

[8] F. F. Korolev of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the USSR, in the proceedings of the *Congress of the International Association for the Advancement of Educational Research* (in English) Warsaw 1969, pp. 1-24.

COMPARATIVE STUDIES IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Edmund J. King,
University of London King's College

An audience of experts present at the first World Congress of Comparative Education Societies is entitled to expect a very learned paper. No doubt such papers will be presented by my very able colleagues. My own communication concerns the practicalities of the matter rather than something remotely desirable.

Where we begin comparative studies of educational systems and problems depends on the state of readiness of our student body. Even if we have a well-prepared body of students--for example, all graduates in one of the social sciences and all thoroughly acquainted with their own educational system and at least one other--there still remains the problem of acknowledging where we are talking, and when, and to what purpose. Few indeed of the recommendations made by writers on comparative method take these critical considerations into account; yet there is all the difference in the world, for example, between giving a course in a well established centre of comparative studies in Britain or North America, with every possibility of library reinforcement and information from research, and beginning to establish a little comparative study in some remote part of the world where systematic studies of education and its perspectives are struggling for recognition.

Moreover, there are questions of level. In many countries represented at this conference, most of the teachers are not educated-and-trained in colleges acknowledged to be fully of university standard; in other countries represented here, the teachers receive a university degree which has nominal equivalence with other degrees, yet is not generally recognised by doctors, lawyers, and other "liberal" professions as being on a part with their own qualifications. Even if in some Utopia graduates whose main qualifications are in Education enjoy "parity of esteem" with other graduates, there are still questions of level to be asked about the very studies to which we propose to introduce our students.

Does the course which we teach offer a little "optional extra" to students very busy with other things? Or is it somehow central to the preparation of future teachers who know that comparative studies are the main criterion for themselves and policy-makers in arriving at educational decisions for the next 30 or 40 years? It is questions like these which circumscribe our possibilities in encouraging comparative studies, or which in more favourable circumstances invite us to plan for a whole university course, with a strong follow-up in in-service education for teachers afterwards.

In the short time available for this paper, however, I direct my remarks mainly to the circumstances of Britain and North America. In other words, I am assuming that the education and training of teachers takes place in the post-secondary phase, after a thorough grounding in academic discipline to at least the threshold of university studies. I also assume that the course followed by future teachers is at least comparable with that in a British college of education or most American colleges of middle standing. To a lesser extent, the same remarks are applicable to the preparation of teachers who are already graduates in some teachable subject, and are attending the kinds of course available after graduation in preparation for some higher qualification like a post-graduate certificate in education (in Britain) or a Master's degree in the United States.

Historical Background

We ought to be able to assume that students coming to us will know very well that there is nothing "given" or "automatic" about the school systems to be found in their own country and in other countries with which they happen to be familiar. Students ought to know that such school systems--set up by laws, financed by taxation, and staffed by a whole hierarchy of people with carefully graded qualifications and competences--are just as much technological inventions as are factories and business houses. They were all set up long ago to do particular jobs, most of which may now be outmoded because of the almost completely changed emphases in education increasingly used as an instrument of public policy, especially since the end of World War II.

The growth of knowledge and the extension of its uses, considerations of technological and strategic development, questions about human relationships and behaviour, the need for long-term planning all of these things have brought into question existing norms and pre-suppositions inherited from the past. No matter how much reverence is given in any country, or in any part of any educational system, to the legacies of the past, we need a fresh appraisal. The concepts, and content, and institutions and operations of education are all of questionable relevance; they depend on comparative studies to justify policy assumptions and experiments on which the planning of the future must be based. Without this sense of conditional relevance in all our legacies from the past, and without a sense of the foreshortening of time, our students are hardly likely to realise that comparative studies today communicate a kind of urgency and practicality which may have been largely absent from Comparative Education as described in the manuals of the great fathers on this subject.

These remarks imply that while there may have been a sort of esoteric library study called Comparative Education in the past, we are talking about something really different. We are talking about introducing a comparative perspective or dimension into every educational study, with the express purpose of questioning and analysing more radically whatever most of our compatriots do at home, and whatever our neighbours in other countries may still have to teach us. We are not concerned with idle categorisations, "juxtapositions" and all the other things you can do with books and pieces of paper. Instead, we are trying to induce our students and colleagues to examine their consciences now, and decide on a better way of life for the future because of the information, the comparative techniques, and the concerted evidence which continuing researches bring to bear upon present policy decisions. We begin with shock treatment immediately; we proceed with a kind of "softening up" which makes them feel uncertain and merely relative or conditional; we finally show them how to be better informed and more rigorous in analysis--all on the basis of intercultural comparisons and cross-disciplinary analysis.

A Crescendo of Commitment

In some cases at least, it may be possible to show students how comparative studies have developed a crescendo of urgency and commitment to the solution of educational problems and the formulation of policies and problems. (This I tried to do in my paper on "Comparative Studies and Policy Decisions" in Comparative Education, November 1967). In any case students should be well aware of the large number of educational "crises" of one sort or another on which experts in comparative study have been asked to give advice or to participate in some way. They should be aware of the work of Unesco in advice and development, of the contributions of O.E.C.D., and the International Institute for Educational Planning. They should also be aware of some major comparative exercise of a very purposeful kind in their own or a neighbouring country. We need think only of the Robbins Report in Britain, the Chant and Parent Reports in Canada, the Hughes Parry Report in Australia and the present surveys of the Patridge Commission, the Ashby Report on West African education--not to speak of national surveys undertaken with a less comparative perspective, like those undertaken by the Swedish National Board of Education. All of these show the context in which comparative studies today will be assessed for relevance.

Indeed, from the earliest times comparative studies have been purposeful. They have been by implication reformative. They have searched for repeatable factors and influences--very often in somewhat unjustifiable isolation. Now, however, with increasing urgency and expertise they bring their influence to bear in toto and in concert with other disciplines--bring them out of the library and the classroom into the arena of public decision and practical fulfilment.

The Stages of Presentation

Where you begin with your students depends, as always, on the resources available. Among these we put ourselves and our colleagues in the first place. If a college is fortunate in having a substantial group of experts--or a large background of well-tried experience in some academic, research, or advisory capacity obviously we begin there. In general, however, it is clear that students in many countries still need to have quite simple and direct information about the starting base-line. They really need to be told that there exist different scholastic idioms (different school systems, different ways of doing things, different structures, different intentions, different sanctions and rewards). They need to know that these school systems do not by themselves add up to a "language of life," but derive their meaning from the total cultural matrix in which they have taken on shape, and in which decisions about their future are still being made--always in a kind of total idiom.

Logically, this always seems to me a good starting point. Students need to know about France, the U.S.A., the Soviet Union, Japan, India, and a few other countries of that sort in order to know what different starting points other people have in coming to an educational decision, or even an educational "problem." Obviously "problems" depend upon being recognised by somebody who feels challenged to justify what he does.

These "given" systems are clearly challenged by population growth, new external and internal relationships, and technological and social or political development which challenges the educational heritage. In different ways they are all assailed by such problems as urbanisation, new communications, new expectations and fears on a worldwide scale, and other developments which introduce a perspective of possible new developments or at any rate a need to compare notes with neighbours.

Besides, we are hardly likely to realise our *own* relativity unless we come face to face with different "languages of life" and educational idioms of priority and value which characterise other people. It is a sort of shock to see how differently others think about the school structure, about the cultivation of "excellence," about the relative amounts of fuss and attention given to particular elements of the curriculum, or to certain rituals beloved of schoolmasters.

Moreover we can see that whereas schoolmasters and researchers often think that problems occur singly and demand immediate attention from them, in real-life conditions these problems usually occur in an interconnection of school, working conditions, social hierarchy, economic rewards, and political discontent of some sort. Therefore, although it would be only educational tourism to spend time simply telling our students about the U.S.A., the U.S.S.R., low-income countries (if that were all we did in looking at other countries) it is a very different matter when we are holding up this overseas view to be a challenge to our *own* pre-supposition.

International and Cross-cultural Comparisons and Challenges

One advantage of beginning in the way just recommended is that students can see two aspects of comparative study very clearly: they see the lateral or cross-national relativity and complementariness (rather than the exactness or "science") of much educational theory and practice; and they see that what appears to be justified at one time or at one stage of development depends for its present relevance upon being up-dated and re-oriented.

Students can see very clearly that certain school reforms or educational plans which may be justified logically in the light of cold reason, or because of the example of some successful experiments elsewhere, may be impracticable in a given country until a further stage of development has been reached (in technology, in social attitudes, in the acquisition of new resources). They thus learn a very important point: that comparative studies differ very much from purely economic projections, from demographic or occupational predictions, and things of that sort, if only because educational decisions and prejudices are intimately bound up with *preferences* at home, in the neighbourhood, in party or church or working associations, and in the long run on *political decisions*. Every educational decision these days is a political and social decision. Any educational inactivity is equally a political and social decision. As scholars we are observers of this situation. As citizens of the country or as privileged guests there, we feel the total reality of the circumstances in which we are trying to recommend wise policies. It will be noted that we *are* trying to recommend wise policies and not simply stay on the side-line as supposedly objective observers who should not get involved.

The Outside View and the Internal Realities of Education

It is against the background of other people's "present reality" of educational experience and educational decisions, that we observe more objectively the actual influence of all those powerful factors which we read so much about in comparative education textbooks. I mean: industrialisation, technological development, social demand manpower considerations, new communications, and so forth.

It is all very well for us to observe (quite truly in many instances) that so and so is likely to happen in terms of technological change. Technological change and indeed some kinds of technical and commercial education cross national frontiers and ideological susceptibilities more readily than most considerations in general education. You can hardly stop an aeroplane or the construction of airports. Roads and telecommunications are much the same all over the world. Students of these technological changes and of some economic changes tell us that planning in some respects is much the same no matter whether it takes place in Moscow or in Washington. But when we come to the decisions of education we find some very substantial differences in preference and practice. We are not simply comparative students of change just happening. We are undertaking comparative studies of *educational* change, which is intended to bring about further change. Likewise, we wish our students to realise that--obviously in co-operation with sociologists, demographers, economists, and communications experts--they are concerned to know and study phenomena as they appear in the distinctly educational field.

Moreover, even as students of society, we have to see that all these great international influences do not affect all parts of an educational system equally. Sometimes the reason is geographical distance, regional under-development, unequal distribution between suburbs and the town centre, and so on. But in every case the aspect which we and our students are looking at is the educational aspect. Our comparisons are based upon our knowledge or other people's knowledge of education. We are hoping to bring our information and insights to bear upon educational development. The other experts in the social sciences can specialise in their own fields. But in so far as we have something to offer it is in our own field. So often it happens that technological and social development plans for low-income countries (and sometimes in times of great political and social upheaval in high-income countries too) are worthless because the educational element has not come into the picture sufficiently. Therefore we should not let our young students who are going to be teachers and advisers to parents escape with the idea that somehow experts and "social scientists" can come in and answer all educational problems without the kind of insight which we hope to develop through comparative study in our young teachers. We hope they will continue to be lifelong students of education--professionally, socially, and intellectually; and above all we hope that comparative studies will develop the kinds of understanding and commitment which challenge teachers to justify their assumptions and practices in a perspective of long-term international relativity.

Analysis of Concepts, Institutions and Operations

From what has been said already it is clear that at no stage is "pure description" of other people's school systems contemplated (even if that were possible epistemologically). We have simply tried to delineate the general conditions of educational ecology, and show that there are different ecological patterns of response and organisation which add up to different theatres of decision on today's problems. Those problems are never quite "the same" or "identifiable" even for us as we look in from outside, simply because the very people who have to perceive problems and work towards solutions live inside perception systems, value systems, and institutional and operational systems different from our own. It is this obvious truth--so important for the scientific objectivity of our studies--that we have been trying to communicate so far.

But obviously we must proceed to analyse the elements of the totality called "the educational system" in any country. That has usually been inherited through centuries, at least in part; and in any case it is largely stabilised by laws, budgets, manpower allocations, classification of teachers and institutions, rates of pay, examinations, and sometimes prescribed syllabuses. We are dealing with a system, and not a lot of bits. Each part of the system takes on some of its significance from the existence and idiomatic flavour of the whole system. That is one of the important facts of educational study which we as comparative experts have to communicate.

With that proviso, we can go on to examine with our students the distinctive elements or aspects of educational activity which lend themselves readily to comparative appraisal--particularly when measured against the challenges introduced by technological and social change. My own recommendation is that--having first set out our own context of discussion, and the context of our enquiry in a particular country or time--we analyse educational problems by emphasising distinctively the conceptual, institutional and operational aspects of each problem we examine comparatively.

For example, "the aims of education" and "the nature of man" are conceptual elements varying greatly from country to country and time to time. Within those broad concepts la culture générale, Allgemeinbildung, and "an all-round education" again vary. Within those once more, "excellence" in general and the "selection of talent" in particular vary cross-culturally. They may even vary from region to region in a country, from social class to social class, from party to party, from one theory of education to another. There is often plenty of scope for comparative analysis even within one country. Better still, the constituent elements of the educational concepts we examine can be compared cross-culturally, to see if they have the same or similar meanings, or if on the contrary they have acquired a special significance from being associated in one place with a particular institutions (like a lycée) or a particular operation (like an examination, or a way of recruiting for important jobs).

Trying to separate concepts from entanglement in institutions and practices in this way becomes easier by cross-cultural analysis. We can see how an apparently similar concept is differently housed and differently developed in different circumstances. Thus we disentangle the general and perennial from local and topical ephemera. In this kind of analytical exercise we can of course draw on the aid of our philosophical colleagues; but in return we contribute something to the clarification of their own concepts.

Moreover we can show that a concept which may be relevant to one kind of institution, or to one kind of social or occupational structure, is brought into question by the rise of other institutions and occupational relationships. Demographic and socio-economic change may demand quite different concepts of "excellence"--in content, in expertise, in adaptability. All of these have a direct bearing on the concept of excellence in the schools generally, and in particular schools or curricula--especially when we consider all these things in the light of institutional interrelationships and social structure generally.

Likewise, even without much technological and social change, it is manifest that particular kinds of excellence (e.g., verbal ability, numeracy, aesthetic quality) are enshrined in different curricula and different teaching/learning relationships as we move from one country to another. When we also introduce the "telescoped" time-scale of recent technological and social development, new communications, and the present need for lifelong and large-scale readaptation, we see clearly enough that a quite altered pattern of operations will be necessary--even if we wish to preserve as far as possible our inherited concepts and our well-tried institutional structure.

Problems, Decision, and Continuing Research

Thus we see that the study of "problems" in comparative education is very different from the study of nearly natural things like forests or artifacts like railways. We are faced constantly with studies of involvement, priorities of choice, reform of institutions within systems, and crises of decision--in which real problems never occur singly but always in some sort of constellation or upsurge. More than ever before, our more advanced students go on to the study of decision and development.

In real life, the people responsible for decision and development are seldom academic researcher or the people in the schools. The more's the pity. Of course our researches--and the researches of our students when they have served a very necessary apprenticeship in preliminary course-work--must be as objective and academically skilled as possible. Yet the field of study is the real-life arena of education in the late twentieth century, where social and technological and political considerations are inseparable from every consideration of educational effectiveness. That is why the maturing student of comparative education nowadays needs to be involved in seminars and perhaps common courses with students of a changing society.

Above all, in the research field a kind of constituent conversation must be continuously maintained--not only for academic interdisciplinary reasons of gathering information and acquiring or giving new insights, but because some special research topics (like that of my own Comparative Research Unit on the expanding population in full-time education between the ages of 15 and 20) are themselves studies of interplay and feedback. This dynamic and perhaps cybernetic aspect of comparative study is a new dimension for our times. Though it is obviously of greatest importance for the most advanced students, such a developmental commitment inheres in the very beginning of comparative study. Otherwise, why study comparatively at all? Why not stay content with our own backyard? Therefore, it is a mistake to tabulate and isolate the various phases or aspects of comparative study--except for very brief "laboratory" analysis before the living stuff of educational activity is returned to the dynamic ecology which makes sense or nonsense of our observations. From the very beginning of our teaching and training in comparative studies of education this long-term outcome is in the perspective for today.

NOTE: The views expressed in this paper are developed at greater length in the following books and papers:

Comparative studies and educational decision (Bobbs-Merrill and Methuen, 1968);

Education and development in Western Europe, Chapter 1 (Addison-Wesley, 1969);

Other schools and ours (Holt, Rinehart and Winston), fourth edition, enlarged 1971;

"Comparative studies and the scientific approach to educational policy" in Melbourne Studies in Education, 1971.

"Une crise de conscience dans l'Education Comparée" in La revue française de pédagogie, 6, Jan. - Mar., 1969.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

R. F. Lawson

In the university, there are only four basic places, incorporating functions, for the study of Comparative Education:

1. in the general undergraduate program as a "liberal" elective, not directly connected to the professional training of teachers;
2. in the professional undergraduate program, as an integral part of teacher training;
3. in the general graduate program of a Faculty of Education, as a "resource" study for professional educators in various roles; and
4. in the graduate program as a specific study, i.e., the training of Comparative Educationists.

Perhaps the most fundamental problem with our instructional function is the failure to discriminate aims and methods according to the situation and expectation of students in each of these four instructional "places." In fact, it has been common for Comparative Educationists to justify their courses on grounds associated with the second and third function alone, while constructing and teaching the courses on grounds associated with the first and fourth. This is not difficult to understand. With some social-science basis, with the attractiveness of international content, with the respectability of a humanistic framework, with flexible lines of alliance to other disciplines, and with a commitment to professional education, we can argue effectively as to the utility of comparative education in the undergraduate training program and the liberal effect of comparative education in the general graduate program--always alleging some synthesis of liberal and utilitarian values. At the same time, we tend to do what is most acceptable to us as scholars in classes: we teach a general humanistic course, or take the students through a phase of our own research method and perhaps content.

For the training of researchers in comparative education, course units which lead from system descriptions through analytic tools for the study of problems to scientific comparisons may be organized and linked as we individually see fit. As a part of liberal education, a single course in comparative education, though more restricted in time, also has considerable flexibility in that the instruction forms part of a larger whole and its adequacy will depend to a great extent on the general relationships established. These statements are somewhat extreme; if the work accomplished in comparative education thus far has any meaning, and I think it does, the framework of the field is drawn and research methods followed by specialized students will correspond to one of the basic methodologies accepted in the field. Similarly, the conduct of a general university course in comparative education need not depend simply on the artistic excellence of an individual teacher. Here, for example, I think a good case could be made for the study of comparative institutions, including comparative education among other comparative studies for basic knowledge of the range of institutional patterns in contemporary life. A similar study at a more advanced level might place the emphasis on Comparative Method, thus utilizing the methodological achievements of comparatists in a number of institutional fields to establish a common base for comparative research before the student employs the method to his own singular area of work.

I would much rather continue talking about research or liberal education, but that preference is indicative of the main point I wish to make about comparative education in the training of teachers. As a part of teacher training, i.e., as an integral component of the training process, comparative education would have to be addressed in a very direct way to the hard problems of teaching. Disguised courses in comparative research or the humanities of education will not do. Study of problems which are only academic will not do. Especially with the knowledge we have, as comparative scholars, of the inadequacy of schools and of teachers to deal with the traditional problem of promoting excellence, to respond effectively to the individual child, let alone to cope with the overwhelming problems of urban schools, how can we in conscience occupy a precious part of the teacher's training time on subtleties of language and philosophy or on number games. We know that the nations of the world are now intimately interconnected politically and economically; we know that our technology has in some ways outstripped our ability to manage it; we know that the cities are plagued by shortages, violence, polluted environments, by cycles of personal frustration for their people and that these problems go beyond the city limits to affect the whole quality of life in our world; we know that general economic conditions are still looked on as "fate" by most people; that our systems of transportation and communication are dangerously overstrained and subject to costly error. In short, we are well aware of the complexity and gravity of modern social problems.

This all refers immediately to comparative studies in that people still tend to think of their problems locally, thus incorrectly. In larger terms, the reference is to the social business of public education which seems to me to be the equipping of men, ultimately, to improve the state of their world, and immediately, to understand and move confidently in it. If comparative education is part of this general enterprise, but contributes through the medium of science, it should clearly connect its scientific ground for problem solution to the specific tasks teachers will face in the public schools.

I will not be so presumptious as to suggest exactly how this is to be accomplished for individual instructors; I do intend to devote considerable attention to ways in which it may be done in my own classes. Some suggestions, partly from students, may, however, be advanced here for your consideration.

In the first place, much more cooperative work could be done through comparative education societies. Much of the fruitless time now spent in conferences, i.e., in listening to papers better read, could be more profitably devoted to working sessions. Such sessions might focus directly on the detail of instructional techniques, on the intricacies of a particular system--for specialists or for non-specialists, on the employment of a particular analytic procedure. Since we must assume that university teachers today will not and should not necessarily be researchers as well, working sessions might help bring the leading edge of work in the field into the classroom. For teaching to be effective, current research must support it, but we need not continue to think that the only way to connect these two functions is to have the same person doing both. For both teaching and research development, we should be able to centralize and communicate data, not only through the crude personal means of conferences, but through storage and retrieval mechanisms so organized as to allow teachers to utilize knowledge to date and to allow researchers to take advantage of steps already completed. It does not seem impossible that we could set up a data system whereby the raw material of specialized studies on and relating to education in various societies could be used for the isolation of critical variables for comparative study, which could in turn be employed as the best criteria available at a given time for educational prediction and development planning.

So much may be acceptable to both researchers and teachers in comparative education, but we come to a division as soon as the discussion turns to the distinction between comparative and international education, or to the legitimacy of meliorative purposes. Both teachers and students tend to talk about instruction in terms that I associate more with international than comparative education, and tend to come finally to meliorative justifications for the study. For example, they tend to emphasize student interests (which are usually local first), the connection of comparative learning to understanding of education at home, the countereffect of information about other parts of the world to ethnocentric attitudes, the relationships of international studies at the university to the teaching of world affairs in the schools, the contribution of comparative education through general education to citizenship in the world community, contributions to the improvement of system operations for the positive transformation of human society. I have maintained that such suggestions were not relevant to comparative education, but I should like now to modify that restriction to comparative education research. There is every reason, in terms of teaching effectiveness, to organize comparative education courses for teachers so that information about other countries is brought into the framework of the teacher's own educational task orientation and to direct the learning toward specific problem resolution. It is no compromise of research concerns to define instruction independently and to the satisfaction of the consumer.

The fact is that a good deal of what has been advertised as appropriate content for comparative education courses rests, for the non-specialist, on unrealistic assumptions.

Students often feel that they lack both the general scholastic background and analytic experience, the knowledge of society in general or of any particular society to deal with comparative education. Too much is presupposed, by most writers, as to students' general background, knowledge of foreign language and culture, grasp of history and philosophy of education, and ability to use scientific method. They are not ready for analytic problem identification, contextual differentiation, or the search for predictive principles. To attempt to initiate such considerations, which are proper to Comparative Education, at the same time the student is beginning to find his way through even one foreign system is to reinforce his suspicion that the course, while being so abstract and unfamiliar that it must be worthwhile, is simply out of his intellectual territory.

I am suggesting that a Comparative Education course can make a contribution to the training of teachers, only by becoming a part of the training program, perhaps to a greater degree than it is a part of the field of comparative education. However, the benefits students gain should accord substantially with those we consider legitimate to our study.

Perhaps the meeting ground between the study of Comparative Education and the application of comparative education to the training of teachers is most readily discerned from the student perspective. The locus for this meeting ground, as identified by students, is traced by the use of information about various educational systems to:

1. comprehend the relationship of education to other institutional systems within a cultural environment, i.e., to understand not only how schools operate but why they operate as they do;

2. through this understanding, to determine the tightness of particular connections, i.e., which structures and processes are culturally fundamental, and which are amenable to strictly educational manipulation:

3. to examine the general process of social change by treating the systems as laboratories which produce tentative social results according to the intitutional formulae employed--and to translate knowledge so acquired into purposeful educational challenges, planning constructs, and development procedures;

4. to define educational problems accurately by form, regional particularity, and critical degree, and to propose the steps leading to solution.

These are not surprising suggestions; they are not meant to be. They rely on content and procedures already identified with comparative education, but they indicate a greater applicability for the teacher by requiring the concepts of cultural integration to be understood to make practice and planning more effective, by rejecting romantic notions of national destiny, historical progression, philosophical integrity, etc., in favor of the social-laboratory approach, by directing the use of the extensive range of resources and tools available in comparative education toward the capability of the teacher and administrator to deal with the complexities of modern education, and by developing from the world catalog of working educational practices, a refined concept of education.

It is quite conceivable that, in comparative education for teacher training, the idea of systems integration, which we have attempted to develop, might be dropped altogether. Instead, aspects of comparative education, such as innovation catalogs, problem-study techniques, alternative "sets" for educational procedures, or comparison with abstracted ideal systems, might be incorporated into those areas of teacher-training where their effectiveness could be most immediate, and continued in in-service programs as they are useful to teachers and administrators.

If this seems extreme, we might take note of the haphazard ways in which precisely such piecemeal attempts are being made now by educationists outside the comparative field. Our one chance to make the study of comparative education important to the future conduct of public education is to decide ourselves on the initiation of forms of instruction unequivocally directed to training requirements.

COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION AS A FIELD OF INQUIRY

Elizabeth Steiner Maccia
George S. Maccia
Indiana University

1. Purpose of the Paper

That the professional component of teacher education should be international is a truth mouthed by many, swallowed by few, and digested by very few. It is the purpose of this paper to aid digestion through presentation of a view of comparative and international education as a field of educational inquiry which makes sense of this truth.

2. Object of Educational Inquiry

To say that the object of educational inquiry is education is a truism. To say more of the object takes us beyond the commonplace, for it involves us in educational theorizing which delineates education. Objects are not neatly packaged waiting for us to think about them, rather our thinking packages them.

When one analyzes the educational thinking as presented in educational discourse, senses of education are found which are either too narrow or too broad. Education taken as schooling is too narrow, since the school is only one way a group could arrange itself for the teaching-learning process. Also education taken only as good education is too exclusive a sense. Educational theorizing about bad education would be excluded. Surely one can be educated badly, even though it is hard to imagine one deliberately attempting to bring about bad education. To intend what is good does not insure what is good, because one might be mistaken as to what is good or how to bring it about, or one might lack the ability to learn or teach. Where learning is taken as education the sense is too inclusive. Education becomes almost as broad as life. Effects of all experience on subsequent behavior, not only of experience in which there is teaching, is taken as education.

To avoid these inadequate senses of education, which is to avoid including too much or too little as the object of educational inquiry, education should be taken as a process in which someone teaches something to someone somewhere. Education, then, would involve teacher, curriculum, learner, and environment. Although a teacher and learner could be the same person and the environment could be one without persons instead of one with persons (administrators, counselors, custodians, etc.), usually it would be group behavior involving many persons interacting.

3. Kinds of Educational Inquiry

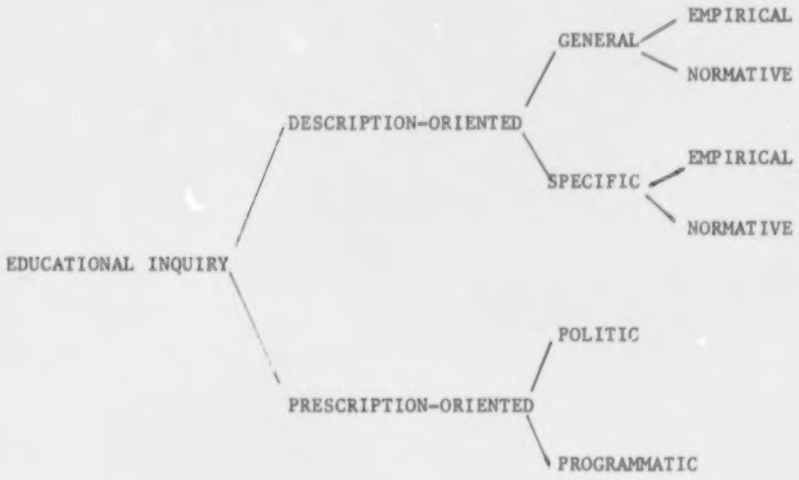
Two basic kinds of questions can be asked about education: questions as to what education is and questions as to what should be done in education. To answer the first kind of question one must describe, and to answer the second prescribe. Two basic kinds of educational inquiry, therefore, can be distinguished: description-oriented and prescription-oriented.[1]

Description-oriented inquiry can be directed toward the general or toward the specific. That is to say, the descriptions sought by the educational inquirer could be of the educational process in general or of a particular educational process. One source of examples of description-oriented inquiry directed toward generalizations or principles would be the work of educational psychologists such as Thorndike. The principle of the superiority of distributed over massed practice is not restricted in its scope to a particular educational process. The national data collection of the U. S. Office of Education, i.e., the collection of statistics in the United States on enrollment, expenditures, and similar educational matters, is an example of description-oriented inquiry directed toward information or facts. The statistics are descriptive of education in the United States at a given time.

The examples of description-oriented inquiry cited above are of empirical inquiry, i.e., the descriptions (whether general or specific) are of states-of-affairs which are not necessarily ideal ones. One can seek to describe good education, for, even though education taken in the sense of good education is too narrow,[2] it is a sense within the meaning of education. There is normative as well as empirical inquiry directed toward the educational general and specific. Descriptions of ideal educational states-of-affairs as well as actual ones which are either principles or of specifics can be sought. Kant's *Pedagogy* would be an instance of the first alternative and Luther's *Letter to the Mayors and Aldermen of all the Cities of Germany* of the second.

Prescription-oriented inquiry also can be directed toward the general or toward the specific. That is to say, the prescriptions sought by the educational inquirer could be for the educational process in general or for an educational process in particular. Either a policy or a program could be sought. Dewey's *Democracy and Education* sets forth policy, while the Head Start Program in the United States is a result of prescription-oriented inquiry directed toward the specific.

Schema 1 summarizes the kinds of educational inquiry.

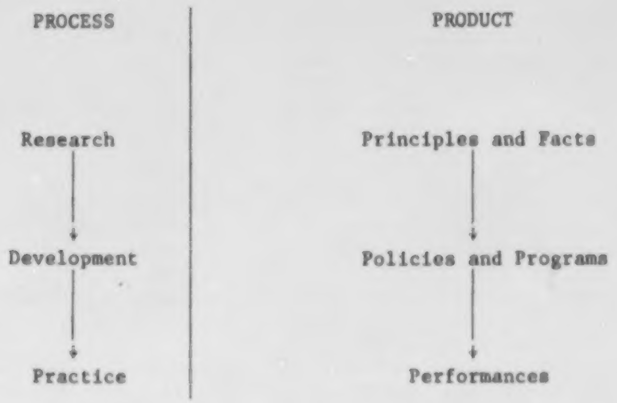


SCHEMA 1: KINDS OF EDUCATIONAL INQUIRY

4. Research, Development, and Practice

'Research' and 'description-oriented inquiry' are taken as synonyms. It should be pointed out, however, that research is taken as only a part of description-oriented inquiry at least by most educational researchers in the United States. Educational research is taken usually as restricted to the processes involved in collecting and interpreting data within the context of the empirical description of man being educated. Not only aspects of empirical describing--concept and theory construction--but also the normative describing of man being educated are not included in educational research. We reject such a narrow empiricism and clain all that is contained in the meaning of 'description-oriented inquiry' for 'research'. Development is taken as prescription-oriented inquiry, while practice is taken as doing.

Provided educational research is adequate, Schema 2 depicts the interrelation of educational research, development, and practice, if both educational development and practice are to be adequate. The arrows indicate one as a basis of the other. Educational research when adequate results in knowledge about education both of the general[3] and of the specific. For adequate educational development a knowledge base is required. Educational policies and programs, if they are to be sound, must be based upon true empirical and normative educational principles and facts. Finally, adequate educational practice depends upon following adequate educational development. If one is to excel in educational performances, then one must base them upon sound educational directives.



SCHEMA 2: INTERRELATION OF RESEARCH, DEVELOPMENT, AND PRACTICE IN TERMS OF THEIR PRODUCTS

5. Inquiry and Teacher Education

It is patent that the education of a teacher *qua* teacher has as its aim excellence of teacher performance. Taking the results of adequate educational inquiry to be a basis for adequate educational practice,[4] it also is patent that the realization of the aim of teacher education depends upon a teacher's grasp of the results of adequate educational research and development. A teacher's basis for excellence in his performances are sound directives. Since this basis is sometimes lacking, the teacher must also grasp true empirical and normative principles and facts in order to have a basis for policy and program development. The results of both description-oriented and prescription-oriented educational inquiry thus should constitute the professional component of teacher education.

6. Comparative Education and Educational Inquiry

In its usual sense 'comparative education' is educational inquiry where the object of inquiry is two or more national educational systems. That this is a restricted sense is apparent upon consideration of the possibility of comparing two educational systems within the same national system. Since at least one of the national educational systems must be foreign and since each system must be delineated before it is compared, even the usual sense is narrowed to descriptions which are simply delineations of foreign educational systems. Restricted or narrowed, comparative education is description-oriented educational inquiry which is directed toward the specific.

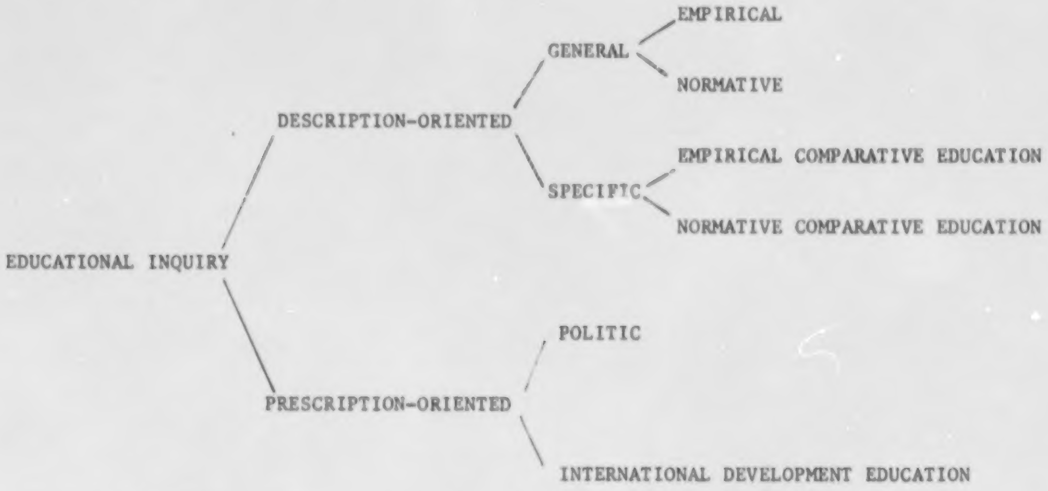
Description-oriented inquiry directed toward the specific can be either empirical or normative,[5] and so both empirical and normative research in comparative education is possible. That is to say, either the comparative educator can elect to delineate and compare national educational systems with respect to their actuality or ideality. The study of Soviet education by Medlin, Linquist, and Schmitt which "deals specifically with the foundations, science and polytechnic curriculums in the general school and with teacher education"[6] is an example of an empirical delineation of a foreign educational system. An empirical study which compares as well as delineates is one done by Gibson and his colleagues of academic achievement of elementary age students in the United States and the British Isles.[7] A study which attempts to delineate what would be worthwhile with respect to vocational education in Poland[8] is an example of a normative one. Normative comparative education studies, however, usually are not simply delineations. Judgments as to worthwhileness usually are made as two or more national systems are compared with respect to their ideality. Such a comparison was conducted by Duncan of the teaching of arithmetic in the United States and New Zealand.[9]

7. International Education and Educational Inquiry

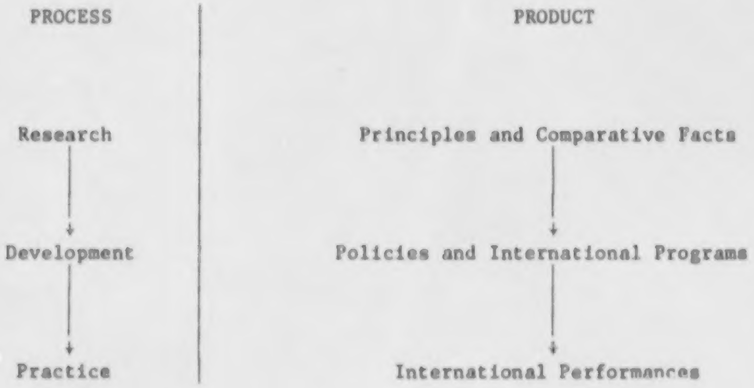
International education emphasizes education as more than a national state-of-affairs. The same emphasis must be present in educational inquiry directed toward the general. Whether our educational inquiry be description-oriented or prescription-oriented and whether it be empirical or normative, the object of inquiry is not a particular educational process, and the results sought are generalizations or policies and so unrestricted in scope. In other words, the object of inquiry is not a particular national educational process and the results sought are cross-national or cross-cultural descriptions or prescriptions. Consider a research field like psychology of education which has this international quality. So should all fields of study directed toward the general, whether they be research or development.

The international education emphasis also can be present in educational inquiry directed toward the specific. When the educational inquiry directed toward the specific is description-oriented and has the international emphasis, it becomes comparative education. When the educational inquiry directed toward the specific is prescription-oriented and has the international emphasis, it becomes international development education. The project for chemistry teaching in Asia[10] is an example of international development education.

Schema 3 presents a summary of the above discussion of the kinds of educational inquiry in the light of an international education emphasis. Schema 4 depicts the interrelation of research (description-oriented inquiry), development (prescription-oriented inquiry), and practice in terms of their products and within an international education


EMPIRICAL
GENERAL
NORMATIVE
DESCRIPTION-ORIENTED
EMPIRICAL COMPARATIVE EDUCATION
SPECIFIC
NORMATIVE COMPARATIVE EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL INQUIRY
POLITIC
PRESCRIPTION-ORIENTED
INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION

SCHEMA 3: INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION EMPHASIS AND KINDS OF EDUCATIONAL INQUIRY


PROCESS
PRODUCT
Research
Principles and Comparative Facts
Development
Policies and International Programs
Practice
International Performances

SCHEMA 4: INTERNATIONAL EMPHASIS AND INTERRELATION OF RESEARCH, DEVELOPMENT, AND PRACTICE IN TERMS OF THEIR PRODUCTS emphasis and thereby makes sense of yet another usage of 'international education'. The usage being referred to is one that is constituted by international education performances, i.e., "cross-cultural movements of educational materials, students, teachers, consultants, and aid."[11]

A usage of 'international education' which encompasses all international inquiry not only educational ones must be recognized in order to reduce ambiguity. International education taken as "education for international and cross-cultural understanding"[12] encompasses all international studies not only international studies of education.

8. International Education and Teacher Education

Because the results of both description-oriented and prescription-oriented inquiry must enter into the professional component of teacher education[13] and because the general must be international in emphasis,[14] the professional component of teacher education should be international. This is not to deny that the non-professional component also should contain international education as international studies.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Description-oriented and prescription-oriented inquiry do not completely parallel conclusion-oriented and decision-oriented inquiry as set forth in Research for Tomorrow's Schools, edited by Lee J. Cronbach and Patrick Suppes, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1969. The new categories are introduced to eliminate difficulties with respect to conclusion-oriented and decision-oriented inquiry.

[2] See Section 2 of this paper.

[3] E. S. Maccia has called knowledge of educational principles 'educology'. See "Analysis as Metatheorizing," in Philosophy of Education 1970, Edwardsville, Illinois: Southern Illinois University, 1970.

[4] See Section 4 of this paper.

[5] See Section 1 of this paper.

[6] William K. Medlin, Clarence B. Lindquist, Marshall L. Schmitt, Soviet Education Programs, OE-14037, Bulletin 1960, No. 17, Washington: U.S. Printing Office, p. III.

[7] Robert L. Gibson et al., A Comparative Study of the Academic Achievements of Elementary Age Students of the United States and the British Isles, United States Office of Education Project 2177, June, 1965.

[8] M. Casey Wolkowinska, "Vocational Education in Poland" in Poland, IX: 480-85, New York: American Polish Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Inc., August 1928.

[9] E. R. Duncan, "Teaching Arithmetic in the United States and New Zealand," Comparative Education Review, June, 1961, p. 59.

[10] The UNESCO Pilot Project for Chemistry Teaching in Asia, Bangkok: UNESCO, 1967.

[11] Seth Spaulding, John Singleton, and Paul Watson, "The Context of International Development Education" in International Development Education, Review of Educational Research, Volume XXXVIII No. 3, June 1968, p. 204.

[12] Ibid.

[13] See Section 5 of this paper.

[14] See Section 7 of this paper.

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE ORGANISATION OF COURSES

R. G. MacMillan,
University of Natal,
South Africa

It is my earnest hope that some of the experiences we have had in promoting the study of Comparative and International Education in Southern Africa may be of interest and value to this Congress.

Southern Africa is a sub-continent, more than half the size of the United States, bounded, for the present, by the northern borders of Angola and Moçambique and by the Zambesi. It has over 45 million inhabitants, the great majority Bantu or other indigenous tribes, some four million Whites, the rest either Asiatics or people of mixed blood.

This area has vast potential in the form of both natural and human resources; whatever, and however difficult, the political problems may be, it is well on the way to very considerable industrial importance. Its educational systems bear the imprints of their English, Scottish, Dutch, Portuguese, German and French origins.

What place does Comparative and International Education fill in this vast area in the preparation of teachers? Teacher-training is conducted broadly as follows:

1. Universities provide one-year post-graduate courses. As a rule, the study of Education as a subject is not included in the basic degree in Arts or Science. Comparative Education appears quite incidentally in professional courses on Educational Administration and the History of Education or in "Present Day Problems". My own university offers a full but optional course. One institution states that Comparative Education is not included in their courses though "we do feel that elements of this discipline may well be deemed relevant."

   It is a matter of interest that all post-secondary training for African (Bantu) teachers, whether graduate or non-graduate, has been transferred to the African universities. Degrees in Education with Education as a major course are beginning to evolve in a number of quarters. This development may prove to be a boon to Comparative Education.

   Most of the universities, however, do include a study of the national system of education, but usually as a vehicle for teaching of history of education or of educational administration.

   In general, non-graduate courses in universities do not include studies in comparative education.

2. Colleges of Education, provide the vast majority of teachers, the courses for all groups, other than most Africans, being three years in length. Comparative Education is not offered, other than at a few colleges where the treatment is very superficial. The national system of education is covered, but it tends to be at the day-to-day level of school administration.

3. Training schools for African primary teachers are, as yet, at the secondary school level. Here only fairly simple school administration is studied.

Post-graduate Study in Education (Bachelor of Education)

Most universities provide such courses but in only one is Comparative Education compulsory. In another, Educational Administration is offered, a course which is comparative in practice. Four universities provide optional courses and a number no specific courses at all. My own university offers two optional courses, the first a general course and the second (or major course) emphasizing methodology and a more advanced approach. The first may be selected on its own but the second can only be taken if the first be taken.

Courses in National Education

The level of admission to teacher-training is an important factor in deciding whether, and at what stage, International Education can be introduced. To many Africans who enter at 15/16 years of age the most that can be expected is a study of the organisation of a school and its place in the broad group system. To those who enter at 20/21 years of age and are in possession of a degree, international study is most desirable but truly comparative work must be regarded modestly.

Experience has shown that education students in the fourth year of university study know next to nothing about their own system of education and yet they are often pitchforked into fairly sophisticated studies of foreign systems. A fairly thorough study of the national pattern is regarded as essential and a springboard, in fact, for "outer" or international studies. Our young teachers are the planners and "changers" of the not-so-distant future, and they should be well-informed about the system of which they are the real heartbeat. Let us work logically then from the known outwards to the unknown.

Is it not true that much of our training is introspective and does not lift the participants out of their own, more immediate, concerns? Also, where there is vertical segmentation of the educational system into different race-group departments, each under a separate Cabinet Minister, as in South Africa, there is the inevitable result that teachers know little about the education of any group other than their own.

It is of the utmost importance that teachers-to-be should learn about the education of the other groups within their own society. This enlivens sensitivity and leads to an appreciation of the problems of the country as a whole and of the racial groups comprising it, in particular. Such a study is approached as objectively as possible, ignorance, emotion and prejudice being shown for what they are. This requires knowledge, patience and balance on the part of the staff.

The approach is formal using a well-known system of classification. Much of the success of the course depends upon the integration of a weekly large-group lecture and small-group tutorial discussions of approximately eight in number. Papers are presented by students, a sensible proportion of time for discussion being insisted upon. Key members of the community are nominated as voluntary personnel whom students can visit for tutorial topic advice. Speakers are invited from the whole educational spectrum including a White Chief Education Planner, an African Inspector of Education and an Indian Heat of Catering Services in the College for Advanced Technical Education for Indians. Visits are also made to a range of institutions not hitherto familiar to students.

Various problems soon begin to crystallize, e.g., the financing and control of education, the attitudes of particular groups of people to education, labour problems, language medium and so on.

How to organize this area? Student freedom to choose topics? The optimum size of groups? To what extent cross-cultural reference can be developed?

These are some of the questions we are asking.

This has been a self-help experiment--resources, apart from an incomplete supply of official publications, have been poor. A text-book on South African education has been written, a contribution made towards a further book on Education in Southern Africa; stimulization of staff-members to publish articles, etc.

These efforts are bearing fruit for use in being made of this material on new courses which are developing elsewhere in Southern Africa.

At the end of this course, students should have some understanding of the terms and concepts currently used in Comparative and International Education and some understanding of the social, political and economic forces which have shaped (and are shaping) the national system which they should then be able to view more dispassionately.

Course in Comparative and International Education

1. Graduate Level

The title "International Education" is more appropriate to what is done in this area, as sophisticated analysis and comparison, except at a limited level, is probably beyond the competence of our first course. It is a question of developing "readiness" for a full programme and the organization of the course must assist and encourage such growth.

National Education and International Education are regarded, by us, as a whole but built up of two tiers with National Education serving as the basic tier. Should the course, then, as a whole be run in series or is it possible to do it in parallel? We have experimented over a period of three years on the post-graduate course with a course in which national education goes on throughout the year, international education being introduced in the second semester when students have completed two quarters, one in the university and one in the schools.

If the course in International Education is to further broaden horizons, it should show the varying responses of a broad range of environments to those forces which have brought educational systems into being and which make for further evolution. Long, concentrated courses, overloaded with detail, do not accomplish this. Students should do stimulating work at a level which they can handle well, rather than too much superficial study. Easier said than done. The need for careful planning (and sticking to the plan) and tough selection of problems, areas, etc., is the challenge which faces the teacher of International Education and he cannot avoid his responsibility.

A further aspect to which we do not know the answers. We do not, in Southern Africa, make adequate use of the inter-disciplinary strengths of the university as such, nor do we make adequate use, as yet, of the many disciplines in which our students are trained. There is great need, too, for all members of staff conducting a teacher-training course to understand the objectives of the course, as a whole; to work towards a loose integration of the various disciplines contributing to the course through your own discipline; thus achieving a degree of educational osmosis. If this be appreciated and practised, International Education has a very important part to play.

Endless but profitable discussions on the syllabus for International Education seem to revolve around the following:

(i) Methodology which is much debated (for this level). Some support a formal introduction to International Education but others consider that by working through an acceptable framework of study, principles are identified and methods emerge, so to speak, en route, with some rationalisation and consolidation towards the end of the course.

(ii) Southern Africa. This seems to be a logical outgoing movement from the national study. It is an area in which we have done little because we have been building a course for introduction at B.Ed. level. As we (the staff) mature, however, the possibility of a limited introduction at the national course level has become a probability. This will be done more through the identification of similar problems like language and medium of instruction, technical and vocational education, educational wastage, etc., and then moving towards the differences.

It is likely that a return to Southern Africa in (iv) will be made.

(iii) Foreign systems. The metropolitan country (England, etc.) should come first, a further widening of the circle already drawn. The vertical pattern is used, or, if students are ready for it, the consideration of various problems involving, in particular, contrasts, for example, in English education:- Primary and secondary school structures, "O" and "A" Levels, approach to examinations, control of education, etc.

The next stage is the study of great powers like the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. and their different approaches--ideologically, administratively, and so on.

In these studies, viewed as a whole, a combination of approaches is used--the area-study, the problem, the global approach and the formal study of a single country at a time placed under the microscope, so to speak. In this way, starting from any national setting, it is possible to build a reasonably coherent and articulated pattern of study which appeals to the graduate.

The careful cross-articulation of topics so that what need to come first or second does so is exercising our minds a great deal at present.

Taken over an academic year, the course (i.e., International Education alone) should be given three periods per week, with one lecture a week in a carefully-designed pattern, one tutorial in groups of about eight students in which other countries like Holland, Japan, etc., or problems could be studied, all of the students' own choice. In assignment work students are encouraged to use, at a limited level, the method of juxtaposition. A further period should be allocated for project and research work, giving opportunity for a depth study, for instance, of a particular problem over a considerable period.

2. Comparative and International Education in Colleges of Education

This is a subject on its own, but the trend in Southern Africa is towards co-operation amongst teacher-training institutions and a more important role in this field to the universities.

It is my view that International Education has a place in the colleges, but that the imposition of university-oriented courses on them would be a grave mistake. The students are generally younger and less mature, but they are given, over a period of three years, a far better general education in a rich curriculum than falls to the lot of most university students. The lower tier of the two-tier pattern should be encouraged in the first two years, but the International Education course must be carefully integrated into the general course on Education. Through topics like selection, curriculum, provision of education and control of education it should be possible to link up well with countries selected in each case for their relevance to the problem.

Comparative and International Education is in its infancy in Southern Africa but there are fairly lusty children in a few quarters. The family is growing but it must not be sporadically and haphazardly nourished. There is need for regional discussions in which the peculiar problems of the area concerned can be fairly fully and intimately discussed and these then seem as parts of the whole of Southern Africa.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN THE TRAINING OF PROFESSIONALS AND IN THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

David W. McDowell
Juul v. R. Altena
State University College
New Paltz, N.Y., U.S.A.

Resume

Programs of training professional Comparative Educators and a course in the discipline for intending teachers are distinguished not in terms of objectives, but in terms of alternative techniques of presentation and stresses on topics and countries chosen for examination. A model of objectives and alternative techniques is proposed, and is used to assist in determining the needs in Comparative Education for intending teachers. These needs are examined with reference to a recent survey of intending teachers.

Introduction

This paper presents an analysis of Comparative Education in the training of elementary and secondary school teachers, by comparing its objectives and techniques to those of a program for the training of professionals in the discipline. We take the position that, whereas the basic objectives for courses for these two groups remain constant, there are important differences in the techniques and stresses for the two groups. Our analysis is aided by the development of a conceptual model of these objectives and alternative techniques for their attainment.

The Two Groups

We define the professional-in-training as the individual in graduate programs in Comparative Education. intending to remain within the discipline as a Professor of Comparative Education or as a research worker or as a participant in educational programs here and abroad. And we define the intending teacher as the individual taking perhaps one course in Comparative Education who plans to teach in the elementary or secondary level schools. The latter group of individuals may have had several years of teaching experience, and may be enrolled in either an undergraduate or a graduate course in Comparative Education.

The Objectives of Comparative Education

For both groups, we would suggest that, in simplified form, there are three basic objectives for a course in Comparative Education:

1. To expand the individual's world outlook;
2. To increase his awareness of the variety of links between society, culture, and the education of children; and
3. To assist in developing an analytical point of view toward his own country's educational system and society, through an examination of education in other countries.

In the first, there is a stress in developing attitudes toward the oneness of mankind. In the second, the stress is more cognitive and informative. And in the third, there is attention to developing tools or methods for description, analysis, and evaluation.

In examining the ways of skinning the proverbial cat, it is possible to identify important features of presentation and stress which can differentiate courses in Comparative Education. To assist in this identification, we propose the use of a model of these three objectives, a model which includes what we believe are alternative techniques of presentation to achieve those objectives. For each objective, in other words, we identify a range of alternatives:

1. To expand the individual's world outlook, it is possible to cover few or many countries, assuming that they are at least representative of a wide variety of regional or cultural or developmental types;

2. To increase his awareness of the variety of links between life and education, it is possible to explore certain themes, such as life style, national character, or cultural pattern formation; or to explore the details of educational alternatives, goals, structures, processes and outcomes in specific social contexts. Certainly, the use of themes is a more comprehensive or abstract technique--a short-hand technique--which is more applicable when many countries are being covered; whereas the technique of concern with details is more systematic and more applicable in the study of a few countries;

3. To develop an analytical point of view toward his own country's educational system and society, it is possible to stress the methodological concerns of the discipline, including its relationships to other disciplines, illustrated with reference to only one or a few social contexts--including one's own educational system; or it is possible to utilize particular problems or issues (such as selection procedures, financing of schools, relationships to social class formation, or unemployment) which can be illustrated in a variety of contexts.

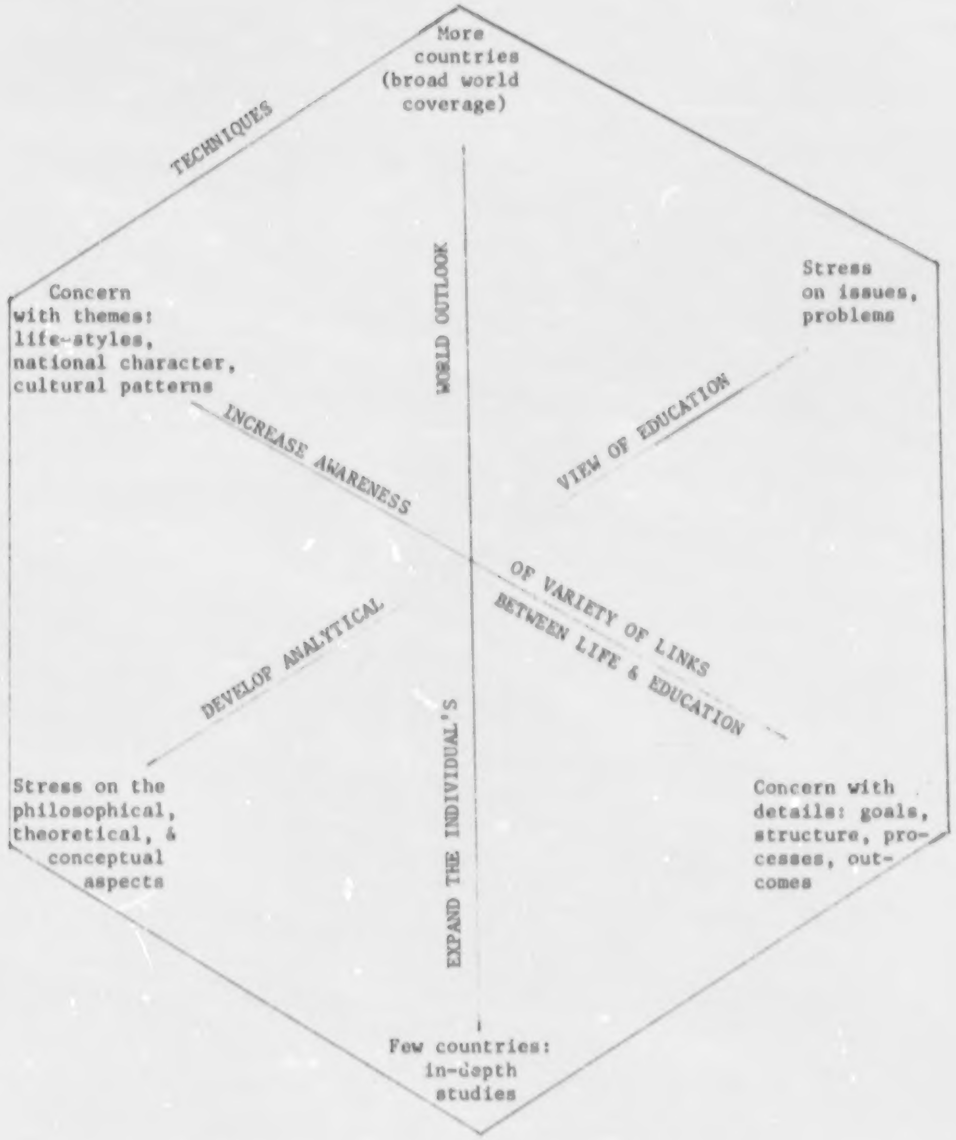
It should not be assumed that a particular course can be located at a given point within the field of this model. Some courses may cover a few countries in depth, with attention to the details of their educational systems, financial support for schools, and methods of teaching and teacher training, while also covering many more countries in area-wide summaries of issues and problems characteristic of that area, or many countries in which one finds similar patterns of national character or life styles. Thus, some courses may sample many different areas within the field of this model.

Moreover, it is the practice in many courses, including those by the authors at New Paltz, to allow the student to explore certain interests in a research project, guided by the requirement that one or a few countries are to be examined in terms of certain issues or problems, and in which there is some concern with particular details of the educational system or processes. Such a project is thus aimed at achieving perhaps all three basic objectives in part, in an area of the model which is not stressed, or in countries which are not stressed, in the readings, lectures and discussions, as well as satisfying individual interests of the students.

Examination of the techniques of achieving these three objectives in a program of training professional Comparative Educators would reveal that all of the field of this model should be covered comprehensively. Coverage of a few countries in in-depth studies may be accomplished through a major in a particular region of the world, for example, sub-Saharan Africa. Moreover, doctoral theses can focus on education in only one or two particular countries. In addition to this area specialization, there are courses on other regions, on issues and problems, and on various themes, often employing detailed comparative analysis of different educational systems. Extensive coverage of the range of analytical tools must be achieved, through attention to methodology, multi-disciplinary approaches, as well as to basic issues and problems. And coverage of general themes has to be supplemented with attention to details of links between education and social phenomena.

Determination of Needs of Intending Teachers to be Satisfied in a Course in Comparative Education

The choice of the areas of the field of this model to be covered in a course for intending teachers must be governed by determination of the needs of the students, which are not the needs of those of the professional-in-training. They are also not necessarily the same as the "wants" of the students, particularly if all of the three objectives are to be achieved. Nevertheless, there can be some convenient overlaps between these needs and wants, as a recent survey of some intending teachers at New Paltz reveals. In this survey, two groups of over fifty students each were chosen: one, of those completing courses in Comparative Education; the other, not having taken and not intending to take such a course. Both


More countries (broad world coverage)
TECHNIQUES
WORLD OUTLOOK
Stress on issues, problems
Concern with themes: life-styles, national character, cultural patterns
INCREASE AWARENESS
VIEW OF EDUCATION
OF VARIETY OF LINKS
BETWEEN LIFE & EDUCATION
DEVELOP ANALYTICAL
EXPAND THE INDIVIDUAL'S
Stress on the philosophical, theoretical, & conceptual aspects
Concern with details: goals, structure, processes, outcomes
Few countries: in-depth studies

A MODEL OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN OBJECTIVES AND TECHNIQUES
IN A COURSE IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

groups were otherwise similar, based on criteria of age, sex, educational attainment, teaching experience, and university programs. The two groups were otherwise similar, based on criteria of age, sex, educational attainment, teaching experience, and university programs. The two groups were chosen to reveal if differences in wants existed. The results are given in the Appendix to this paper in some detail. The survey covered attitudes toward the usefulness of such a course, optimum number of countries to be covered, a ranking of importance of various countries, and a ranking of importance of topics to be covered in such a course.

Before proceding to the results of this survey, it is important to present our perceptions of the needs to be satisfied in such a course. First, we would maintain that attention has to be paid to each of the three basic objectives, either explicitly or implicitly. It is our belief, secondly, that all regions of the world must receive some attention, at least through the technique of summarizing major issues and problems characteristic of the western and non-western, developed and under-developed areas. Third, we would encourage the inclusion of one or two in-depth studies of particular countries, with attention to the details of its educational alternatives, goals, structure, school processes, and outcomes. This may be supplemented, as noted above, with individual student research projects on particular issues or problems in particular countries. Fourth, there is definite value in examining particular themes of life-styles, national character, or cultural patterns, to illustrate the ways that educational processes help to maintain or change these patterns. And fifth, we would suggest that implicit use, rather than explicit examination, of analytical approaches to all of these, including comparative analysis, is more desirable in a one semester course for those who will not go further in the discipline.

Results of a Survey

Analysis of the results of the survey show that these objectives and techniques can satisfy many of the wants of the students, while, at the same time, they can lead the student in needed directions. First, students of both groups saw a value in a course in Comparative Education, expressed in terms of all three objectives. There were no significant differences between the two groups on the perceived value of such a course.

Second, there were only slight differences in the ranks of the importance of such a course between the two groups, implying perhaps that the individual wants were somehow satisfied as a result of taking the course.

Third, some differences in feelings about whether all teachers in the U.S. should take a course could be noticed between the two groups. Unexpectedly, it revealed that those who have taken the course felt less inclined to recommend it definitely for all teachers. This shift may be due to random factors, since there is little shift in the negative feelings toward the course being taught to all teachers. Results of an associated question on why they felt that way showed that those who had taken the course felt that its value could be greater for school administrators who could effect significant changes in the American system as a result of such a course. Although this might be interpreted as indicating a greater sophistication on the part of those who have taken the course, definitely there is room in the interpretation of the results for recommended changes in stress in future courses.

Fourth, both groups expressed the opinions that between five and ten countries is the optimum number which can be covered in one semester. In addition, on many questionnaires there were accompanying suggestions on the usefulness of covering many countries in a general way and a few countries in detail.

Fifth, differences in the rankings by importance of countries reveal that a deliverate attempt in the courses at New Paltz to expose the student to education in countries in the developing regions of the world apparently may have been successful in shifting attitudes toward a wider perspective of the world. This is illustrated in the different ranking of India, Nigeria and Brazil. Although there is in both groups a high percentage of students of Jewish affiliation, which is reflected perhaps in the choise of Israel, that country was not covered in the courses under this survey, and may explain a drop in its ranking.

Sixth, both groups tended to rank higher in importance general themes, issues and problems, and to rank lower in importance the details of the educational systems. It might be noted, nevertheless, that certain items were ranked quite differently as a result of having taken the course, perhaps revealing greater sophistication in the determination of what is needed information. For example, the ranking of the importance of knowledge of types of schools at various levels jumped from tenth to second. It might be hypothesized that the higher ranking of themes, issues and problems by both groups, and the lower ranking of the details of the systems of education, particularly by those not having taken the course, reflect the desire by students to know in abbreviated form the educational processes at work in other countries and their effect on society and the individual. It may also be concluded that important differences in ranking took place as a result of a deliberate stress or lack of stress on certain topics by the instructors. For example, there were stresses on types of schools at various levels and on relationships between education and social class formation; and there was little attention to forms of classroom discipline and methods of teacher training.

Seventh, it should be noted that the range of the means of importance rank was relatively narrow. This signifies not only that interpretations of the result must be considered caustiously, in spite of feelings that certain verdicts are valid and that the results are reliably reported, but also that students felt that all items were considered at least somewhat important. Hopefully, dichronic studies of effectiveness of courses can examine these issues in greater detail and with more validity.

Conclusion

There is one concluding argument which brings this presentation full-circle back to the basic theme of this paper. There is a clear implication in the results of this analysis that instructors on Comparative Education must be thoroughly trained in the discipline, and that this training must encompass the entire field of the model presented. That is, the instructor must be familiar, not only with the basic objectives of Comparative Education and have knowledge of a few countries and their educational forms, but also with the alternative techniques of presentation and have a comprehensive grasp of the subject matter throughout the world. In this way, courses can be designed for intending teachers with either explicit or implicit attention to the variety of concerns, concepts, methods, techniques, themes, issues, and problems which characterize the discipline.

APPENDIX

Results of a Survey Conducted in July, 1970 at the
State University College, New Paltz, New York

Populations:

Group A -- three sections of course 35511, Comparative Education.
Total number of questionnaires: 71

Group B -- three sections of course 35701, Modern Foundations of Education (alternative course for 35511).
Total number of questionnaires: 55

Academic program at New Paltz:

Both courses (35511 and 35701) are graduate level, but may be taken by upper-level undergraduates. Approximately 80 to 90% of those taking these courses are graduate level students. Both courses are one semester, three-credit courses given by the Department of Educational Foundations, and may be taken by students outside the Division of Education. Nevertheless, over 95% of the students in the courses are in teacher training programs.

Results:

1. "How important do you feel knowledge of education in other countries is to a teacher today?"

	Group A (Comp. Ed.)		Group B (Mod. Founda.)	
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent
Extremely important	13	18	10	18
Very important	27	38	23	42
Somewhat important	25	35	21	39
Not very important	5	7	1	2
Useless	1	1	-	-
Totals:	71	99%	55	101%

2. "Do you feel every teacher in the U.S. should take a course in Comparative Education as a part of his (or her) teacher training?"

	Group A		Group B	
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent
Definitely	13	18	15	27
Probably	33	47	12	22
Perhaps	15	21	20	36
Probably not	5	7	4	7
Definitely not	5	7	4	7
Totals:	71	100%	55	99%

APPENDIX (Continued)

3. "How many countries do you feel should be covered in a one semester course in Comparative Education?"

	Group A (Comp. Ed.)		Group B (Mod. Founda.)	
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent
Five	49	70	38	69
Ten	20	29	16	29
Fifteen	1	1	-	-
Twenty	-	-	1	2
Totals:	70	100%	55	100%

4. "Which five . . . countries [of a list of 28 distributed throughout the world] would you feel must be covered in such a course?"

(First ten ranked)	Group A		Group B	
	Total	Rank	Total	Rank
U.S.S.R.	68	1	52	1
U.K.	52	2	34	2
France	38	3	9	7
Japan	28	4	28	3
Red China	26	5	19	5
Germany	19	6	18	6
India	8	7	5	9
Israel	8	8	22	4
Nigeria	5	9	5	10
Brazil	4	10	4	-
Sweden	1	-	9	8
South Africa	2	-	4	-

5. "What would you like to know about education in other countries?"

Rank of Importance of Topics
in Comparative Education

	Group A		Group B	
	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean
Relationships to social class system	1	1.86	4	2.00
Types of schools at various levels	2	2.00	10	2.35
Prognosis of future trends	3	2.02	2	1.75
Ties to social, cultural themes	4	2.07	3	1.87
Methods of teacher training	5	2.09	1	1.70
System of administration & control	6	2.12	6	2.04
Exam systems for selection purposes	7	2.44	8	2.25
Problems of unemployment, drop-outs	8	2.60	7	2.12
Courses taken at various schools	9	2.72	9	2.26
Forms of classroom discipline	10	2.78	5	2.00
Methods of financial support	11	2.81	12	2.81
History of educational development	12	3.08	13	3.19
Enrollment percentages by ages	13	3.66	11	2.42

Categories for determination of the mean: 1 = very important to 5 = not important

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Dr. Abel Prieto Morales
Asesor del Ministerio de Educacion

Delegation: CUBA

Motivations for Studying the Teaching Profession

Although vocational guidance seems to be determined by two factors, namely, (1) knowledge of the person who is to be guided, and (2) knowledge of the aptitudes necessary for the different professions, the fact is that in a consumer society knowledge of--the national labor market is a compelling factor--in choosing a profession. This "vocation" is conditioned by a number of factors in which professional remuneration and the person's economic capacity are paramount.

Great changes in the people's interests in and attitudes toward the traditional values of education--are brought about by a far-reaching revolution. When such a process transforms society and makes education an actual possibility for everybody the concept of "vocation" undergoes a change in harmony with the new circumstances.

Only a mass and integral education can ensure that not one single intelligence be lost. While everybody is not equally gifted nor equally talented for each type of activity, most people agree today that vocation is not an "inner voice", but an internalized value, i.e., external incentives which prompt preference for a certain profession. Vocation, therefore, is determined by interests. When such interests are rightly fostered, i.e., when they are acquired qualities, related to man's needs, then vocation is being shaped to a certain extent.

When we speak of promoting interests leading to professions which are necessary for the development of a country we mean creating a position attitude toward those activities which have not traditionally been favored by the people. We speak, for instance, of professions dealing with agriculture and livestock in a predominantly agricultural country or fishing on an island which has lived with its back turned on the sea.

When the large masses have true access to culture, free from labor market pressure and the resulting material incentives, the professional value scale undergoes a great change. In this manner, the careers in humanities attain a moderate hierarchy, while other professions acquire much more importance than they traditionally had, due to social acceptance. For instance, medicine and other technological careers are chosen by the student masses--which are highly influenced by the environmental preference. When the people attain the right to education, they begin to long for that which was previously inaccessible to them.

At a given historical moment, the teaching profession represents a possibility for social strata having some access to culture, but whose desires cannot be fulfilled beyond their limited educational environment. If educational services are extended and education is made accessible to all, motivations undergo a change in direction towards careers with traditional prestige. A contrasting of interests within the hierarchy of social values somehow takes place, and the teaching profession, in a dialectic contradiction, is affected by the momentary consequences of an unrestricted professional opportunity.

Suggestion

In the light of Comparative Education, it would be convenient to analyze the evolution of the students' interests towards teaching careers within societies where the masses do enjoy the right to all branches of education.

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS: GRADUATE AND UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS

Yutaka Okihara
Hiroshima University
Japan

I. The Real Situation of Comparative Education in the Education of Teachers in Japan

On one hand, foundation of education, history of education, educational sociology, and educational systems are included in subjects on the curriculum at teachers' colleges and faculties of education of universities in Japan. To our regret, on the other hand, such institutions do not always offer lectures of comparative education.

In recent years, however, the significance of teaching comparative education has come to be recognized by those concerned with higher education and the teachers' colleges and faculties of education of universities offering lectures of comparative education have been increasing in number. In 1964, for example, there were only seventeen out of fifty-six teachers' colleges and faculties of education of universities which offered lectures of comparative education. Taking this situation into consideration, the Comparative Education Society in Japan made an appeal with an official document to the Ministry of Education in 1965 that the comparative education course should be provided at all teachers' colleges and faculties of education of universities. In 1969, five years later, twenty-one out of the above-mentioned colleges and universities contained comparative education courses and its ratio reached 37.5%.

As for the teaching staff, most of lectures of comparative education are virtually given by rather young professors, which shows that comparative education will require wider support and deeper understanding from now on.

Considering significance of comparative education, it is undoubtedly necessary that much more teachers' colleges and faculties of education of universities should be provided with the comparative education courses.

II. Graduate and Undergraduate Programs in Comparative Education

(I) Undergraduate Programs

(1) Lecture

There is a general belief that studies of comparative education should be developed on the basic knowledge of foundation of education, history of education, educational sociology, educational psychology, etc. On this assumption, comparative education, when provided, has been most commonly taught chiefly at the graduate level or in the junior and senior years of undergraduate studies. If we seriously think about significance of teaching comparative education in the education of teachers, it is no doubt that comparative education should be placed as one of the basic subjects for teachers' education as well as foundation of education, history of education, etc.

The contents of comparative education at the undergraduate level should be primarily concerned with teaching of real situations and the trends of education in various countries, rather than with teaching of theoretical problems in comparative education. Therefore, we might assume that the nature of teaching of comparative education at this level should be a fundamental one for the education of teachers.

One of the greatest concerns in teaching of comparative education at the undergraduate studies in Japan is to give the general views on comparative education. Therefore, the lectures of comparative education usually consists of two major parts: one is "Theoretical Foundations of Comparative Education," and the other is "Education in Various Countries."

In the first part of this lecture, the concepts, the purposes and the methodologies of comparative education are briefly taught. In the second part, we give students the basic knowledges especially on the educational systems in various countries: i.e., in England, France, Denmark, Germany, the United States, the U.S.S.R., India, etc.

(2) Seminar

In the seminar of comparative education, we have programs of readings of some adequate books including the following literatures in order to help students understand the fundamentals of comparative education.

Textbooks in Foreign Languages

Isaac L. Kandel, Comparative Education, 1933.

Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education, 1949. (Trs. by Michio Toshimitsu into Japanese).

Friedrich Schneider, Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft, 1961. (Trs. by Yutaka Okihara into Japanese).

Franz Hilker, Vergleihende Pädagogik, 1961. (Trs. by Shigeo Kono and Takao Mori into Japanese).

Arthur Moehlman, Comparative Educational Systems, 1963. (Trs. by Hideo Murayama and Sadami Monzen into Japanese).

George Z. F. Bereday, Comparative Method in Education, 1964. (Trs. by Morihiko Okatsu into Japanese).

Brian Holms, Problems in Education, 1965. (Ready in translation by Bunkichi Iwahashi and Yoshio Gondo).

Edmund J. King, Other Schools and Ours, 3rd ed., 1967. (Ready in translation by Susumu Ikeda, Yutaka Okihara and others).

Alexandre Vexliard, La Pédagogie Comparée, 1967.

Max A. Eckstein and Harold J. Noah, Toward a Science of Comparative Education, 1969.

Textbooks in Japanese

Mamoru Oshiba, Comparative Education, 1955.

Takao Ando, The Foundations of Comparative Education, 1965.

Takao Mori, Comparative Educational Systems, 1968.

Susumu Ikeda, A Study of Comparative Education, 1969.

It seems quite difficult to require students to read the original literatures in foreign languages. Therefore, we have currently been making every effort to translate the foreign textbooks into Japanese as much as possible.

(II) Graduate Programs

(1) Lecture

We provide lectures on more specific problems in comparative education, while the lectures at the undergraduate level are rather limited to the general introduction. The recent programs of lectures in comparative education at Hiroshima University, for example, include "The Methodologies of Comparative Education," "Education in Korea," "Education in the United States," "Education in the U.S.S.R.," "Education in England" and "Reforms of Secondary Education in Various Countries."

In addition, some professors and students majoring in curriculum and methdology of respective subjects in the education of teachers have become understandably interested in the comparative studies. It seems reasonable to suppose that this is a new trend. At the Graduate School, Hiroshima University, for example, teaching of social studies division provides the course, "Comparative Teaching of Social Studies," which carries comparative studies of aims, contents and methods of teaching of social studies, based on the literatures and data from various countries. This division also provides the course, "Education for International Understanding," which conducts a study of literatures in this field and the survey of educational experiments in other countries. Besides, teaching of science division contains the course, "Comparative Teaching of Science," which conducts comparative studies of aims, contents and methods of teaching of science in various countries. Moreover, teaching of mathematics division provides the course, "Comparative Teaching of Mathematics," which conducts the analytical studies of the programs in teaching mathematics in various countries.

(2) Seminar

The seminar at the undergraduate studies is just confined to reading of some books which we described above. At the graduate level, we conduct not only reading of literature, but also collection of the data and informations about the specific problems in education and we finally carry out the comparison in practice, through which we intend to acquaint students with the comparative research methods. Recently, at Hiroshima University, we chose and discussed the following themes in the seminar: "A Comparative Study of the Articles on Education in the Constitutions of African Countries," and "A Study of Recent Trends in Educational Reforms in Various Countries."

(3) Field-Studies

While seminars are mainly conducted on the educational literatures, field-studies are on-the-spot surveys, which prove very useful especially for the teaching of comparative education at the graduate level.

Kyushu University has conducted a field-study in Korea these years. This project treated "A Comparative Study of Value-Consciousness of pupils between Korea and Japan."

At Hiroshima University, the third field-study in Okinawa was carried out in 1969 and the fourth one is progressing at present. This project is named "A Study of Education in Okinawa under the American Sovereignty." This study intends to solve the problems of how to integrate the educational systems in Okinawa into those of the mainland on the occasion of the reversion of Okinawa to Japan.

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

FOCUS: MATERIALS AND AIDS

Douglas Ray, Ph.D.
Althouse College of Education
University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada

Abstract

This paper provides a brief rationale for comparative and international education in the training of teachers, then suggests how it might be implemented. Examples of materials and aids, included in the appendix and discussed in the second section of the paper, were prepared for teacher training in Canada by David Radcliffe and Douglas Ray.

Selection Criteria

Three main considerations are suggested for the selection of topics or regions for comparative and international education in the education of teachers. Their order is deliberate:

1. availability of data, personnel, etc.

2. significance of the topic or region to global education,

3. particular relevance to topics of immediate interest.

The first consideration implies the impossibility--or at least great difficulty--in teaching topics where both materials and expertize are lacking. This must not become a council of despair, but perhaps a plea for research. The longest journey begins with the shortest step, so we must rise from our chairs and shuffle in circles while we discuss the difficulties. Most resources can be obtained if we want them badly enough.

Available data may also impede programme development. Using documents or people merely because they are available, without reference to their expertize or bearing on the current problems, is time wasting and self-defeating. It is not easy to discard the interesting and agreeable book, film or colleague even though their message may be useless. Furthermore, similar shortcomings may be widespread within a given nation. For example, most bibliographies reveal that 'available data' represents the scholarship of only a few institutions, mainly in very similar nations. It would be possible to counteract this tendency by limiting purchases to a single title per decade, perhaps the best work, for any particular scholar, with some type of proportional representation by countries or populations. This would help prevent the market saturation by foreign 'experts' who make it so difficult for some scholars in less favoured nations, although no doubt journals would proliferate.

'Available data' does not refer to non-professional magazines, books and newspapers. It is reasonable to assume other sources have provided familiarity with these and to move on to more abstract and challenging material, preferably prepared specifically for the task at hand.

Significance, the second criterion, is difficult to identify. Which educational ideas, systems or problems are most universal? Does one measure historically or by some estimate of the future? Selection implies rejection, but not even the highlights from all countries could be included.

Ideally, each example would be selected for several reasons, thereby justifying a more detailed study, revealing the complexity of educational decisions. For example, certain educational systems have been widely adopted by other states; certain problems are general; certain solutions usually work. Selection is therefore based upon the global topic to be discussed, then the illuminating example.

Particular relevance may be considered at this point. The young teacher must not be stuffed with exact, interesting but non-essential details that he cannot use for practical considerations. Here, comparative and international education starts with the local concerns, examines them in a broader setting, providing thereby some probable solutions.

Examples of Work

One means of interrelating topics and countries is shown in Table I. Two countries, the homeland (Canada) and another example of great interest to the students and great importance to global education (U.S.S.R.) are discussed in all of the topics mentioned. All other countries are studied for selected purposes. Examples are widely scattered geographically and different in many respects, although European references still predominate. The selected bibliography shown in Table II includes several books from a single series with the intention that they be used for comparisons because of their similarity in format, figures and topics. However, only one book by any author is shown, and all were written from a comparative point of view. The western bias is again evident.

Visual materials are very useful. Several charts permitting direct comparisons of selected countries have been prepared. Comparisons may readily be drawn as a prelude to detailed study, to illustrate general problems, to evaluate progress. Most studies use 1955 and 1965 guide years, are prepared with multiple overlays for various types of analysis, use identical scales for cross national comparisons, and are summarized on a single chart where appropriate. The list of charts prepared to this date is included in Table III. Some of them are sketched in Illustrations I - III.

Films, slides and educational artefacts are being assembled as an aid to comparative and international education. It is doubtful whether we can expect many of our students to acquire first hand what we attempt to bring by other means.

TABLE I

UNIVERSAL EDUCATION AND NATIONAL GOALS

	Religion (Ideals)	Race	Language	Nationalism - Internationalism	Secondary and Higher Education Goals		
					Elite	*Selective*	*Comprehensive*
Belgium	*		*	*	*	*	
Britain	*	*				*	*
Canada	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
China			*				*
France	*	*					
Ghana			*	*	*	*	
Guyana					*	*	*
India	*		*			*	
Israel	*		*	*			*
Japan							
Poland	*			*	*		*
Soviet Union	*	*	*	*	*		*
Sweden							*
Tanzania				*	*		
Turkey			*	*			
United States	*	*					*

TABLE II

Belgium	Mallinson, V.	*Power & Politics in Belgian Education*
Britain	Baron, G.	*Schools and Progress in England*
Canada	Wilson, J. Donald	*Canadian Education : A history*
China	Tsang, Chiu-Sam	*Society, Schools and Progress in China*
France	Fraser, W. R.	*Education and Society in Modern France*
Ghana	Foster, P.	*Education and Social Change in Ghara*
Guyana	David, W.	*Economic Development of Guyana 1953 - 1964*
India	Sargent, J.	*Society, Schools and Progress in India*
Israel	Bentwich, J.	*Education in Israel*
Japan	Brameld, T.	*Culture, Education and Change in Two Communities*
Poland	Grant, N.	*Society, Schools and Progress in Eastern Europe*
Soviet Union	Shapovlenko, S.	*Polytechnical Education in the U.S.S.R.*
Sweden	Husen, T.	*Educational Research and Educational Change*
Tanzania	Resnick, I.	*Tanzania : Revolution by Education*
Turkey	Kazamias, A.	*Education and the Quest for Modernity in Turkey*
United States	Ehlers, H.	*Crucial Issues in Education*

TABLE III

LIST OF SERIES DEVELOPED

1. The Distribution of Students in all Institutions of Higher Education by Field of Study: 20 countries are included with base years 1955 and 1965. Illustration I shows the U.S.S.R.

2. Percent of Students in Higher Education Majoring in Science Subjects: Illustration II shows 13 countries with base years 1955 and 1965.

3. Child Population of School Age Compared to School Enrollment. 7 countries are included using the most recent available data. Illustration III shows Japan.

4. Terminal Education Levels of Working Populations: 12 countries are included using the most recent available data.

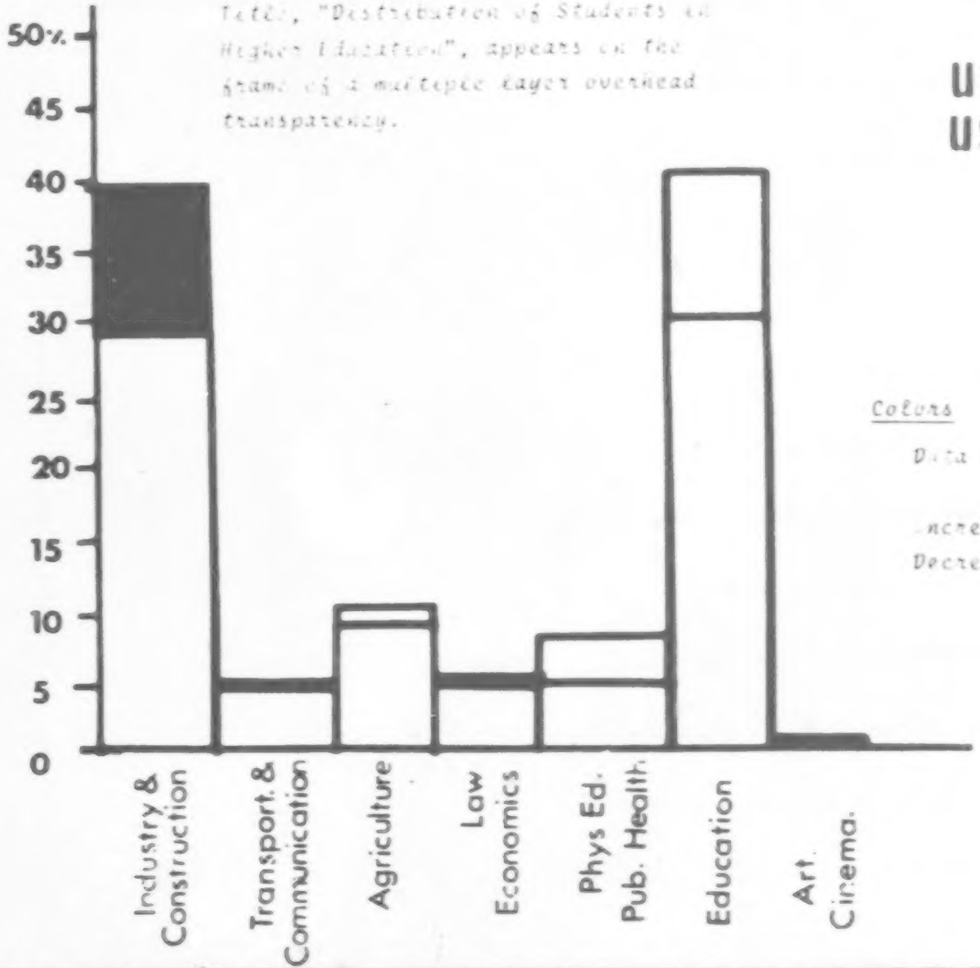
5. Educational Levels in Various Significant Employment Categories: 11 countries are included using the most recent available data.

6. Total Government Expenditure and Total Government Expenditure on Education as per cent of G.N.P.: 14 countries are included using the most recent available data.

ILLUSTRATION I

Title, "Distribution of Students in Higher Education", appears on the frame of a multiple layer overhead transparency.

ussr 1955
ussr 1965



Colors

Data	1955	red
	1965	blue
Increases		violet
Decreases		orange

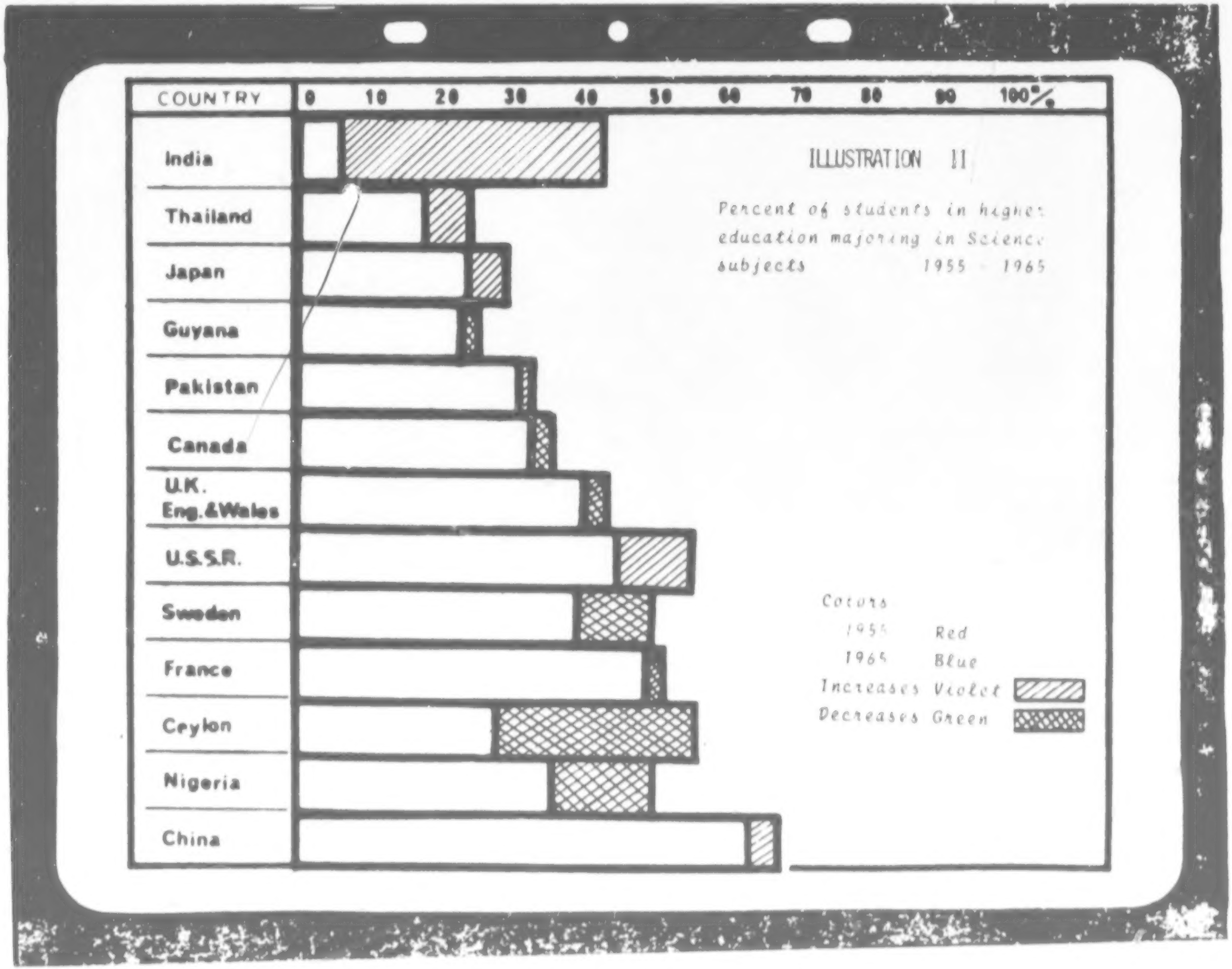
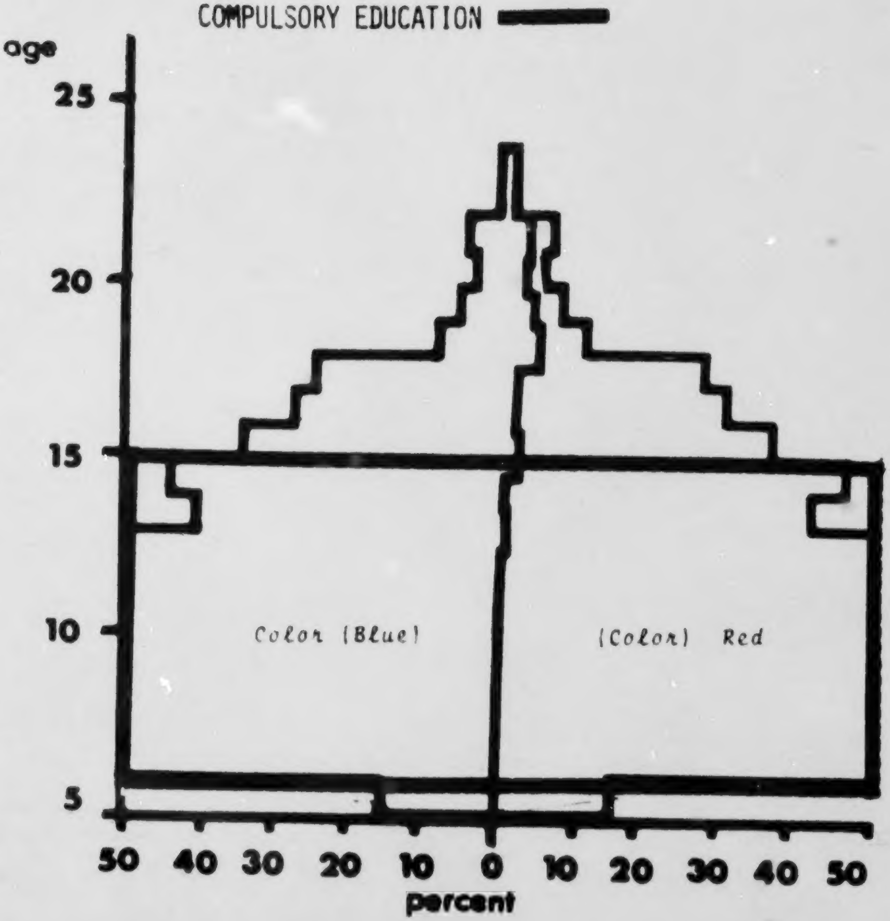


ILLUSTRATION II

Percent of students in higher education majoring in Science subjects 1955 - 1965

ILLUSTRATION III

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT AS A PERCENT OF POPULATION IN EACH AGE GROUP



japan

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Professor A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Ph.D.,
University of Ottawa

1. The Era of the Comparative Education is Dawning!

> We may become powerful by knowledge,
> but we attain fullness by sympathy.
>
> Rabindranath Tagore

> From World confrontation (without world
> conflagration!) to world confederation.
>
> A. Paplauskas Ramunas

Mr. President, distinguished guests, dear fellow educators from Europe, Africa, Asia, Australia, Oceania, and the Americas: -

Welcome in Canada,[1] a country of the rainbow, of unity in diversity[2] and diversity in unity, welcome in the city of Ottawa, a meeting place of three leading Western democracies: French, British and American, welcome to the University of Ottawa,[3] a bilingual sanctuary of higher learning, facing now the very dawn of ecunemism[4] and creative[5] federalism, and evolving into a living and luminous symbol of Canada-wide and world-wide educational thinking and doing.

The First World Congress of Comparative Education takes place under the aegis of the International Education Year and the tercentenary of the death of the foremost Centro-European educator, Jan Amos Komensky-Comenius (1592-1670), known in the history of education as the teacher of nations and of mankind (magister nationum, magister mundi). The year 1970 is indeed eventful and meaningful.

The world of today is a nuclear and military giant,[6] but a moral and spiritual dwarf? It has to be turned into a military dwarf[8] and a moral and spiritual giant.[9] In this atomic and cosmic,[10] post-industrial[11] and post-modern,[12] cybernetic[13] and existential,[14] pre-christian[15] and ecumenical[16] era, the teachers have the best opportunity to emerge as the challengers and changers, moulders and movers, shapers and shakers of the globe.[17]

The world of today is walking between existence and non-existence,[18] self-actualization and self-annihilation,[19] peace and precipice.[20] To survive, it has to learn how to shift from nonsense[21] to sense, common sense[22] and consensus, from dependence[23] to independence[24] and from independence to interdependence,[25] from national solitudes to global solidarity,[26] from nightmare-like national and international cacophonies to Beethoven-like, ecstasy-like, bliss-like national and international polyphonies and symphonies. To survive, the world of today is in need of creative comparative educators to build the bridges among various countries, cultures, continents, creeds, colours and collars.[27] The world of today needs so badly comparative educators as bridge-makers and torch-lighters! The era of the comparative educator is dawning, is dawning in the West, in the East, in the North, in the South, and, this time, will bring some quite unexpected views and voices, unexpected messages and motives of a mission for Canada and the Canadian comparative educators. Like the United Europe,[28] Africa,[29] Asia,[30] Latin America,[31] Canada is an awakening giant.[32] It's a synthesis of Europe and America.[33] It means confluences of influences and convergences of divergences.[34] It's "the international nation"[35] and, to some extent, "the intercontinental continent." Canada, as a trioceanic country, country endowed with a trans-atlantic[36] and transpacific,[37] and arctic[38] and antarctic[39] vision, seems to be destined to become one of the main bridge-makers,[40] spear-heads,[41] and torch-lighters[42] in the process of the coming world self-transformation[43] and world self-renewal through education. Canada's educational sunrise begins![44]

2. The Comparative Education of the Teacher: Professional Ascension Through Psychological and Social Condescension.

> There is no drama to compare with the
> attempt of the human race to understand its destiny, to understand external nature and human nature.
>
> Lancelot Law Whyte,
> *The Next Development of Man.*

> We Westerners, in spite of our so-called culture, are still barbarians and children when it comes to the psychic world.
>
> Carl G. Jung,
> *The Integration of the Personality.*

Your speaker is supposed to exhaust the subject, but not to exhaust his audience. To facilitate, to achieve this double goal, your speaker classifies the participants of this dignified world gathering into two main groups: namely, the pessimists and the optimists. Optimists are those who are now studying Russian and the pessimists are those who are now studying Chinese. Canada, the country of the rainbow, of the unity in diversity and of diversity in unity, believes in world order through world law[45] and, therefore, tries to be bilingual.[46]

Any prospective or self-actualizing teacher is supposed to be well-grounded in the following four sectors or dimensions of the total educative process:

1. - curriculum (what to teach?);
2. - methods (how to teach?);
3. - educational agents (who must be taught and by whom?);
4. - educational aims (why teach?).

Methods and materials (2 Ms) are not to be dissociated from Agents and Aims (2 As). To a great extent the educational aims determine the curriculum[47] making, teaching-learning methodology, the interrelationships between the educational agents, the student and the teacher, the student and the administrators, the teachers and the administrators, the school and society, the school and the State, the school and the Church, the State and the Church, etc., etc. The educative process cannot be aimless.[48] The teachers and the students are supposed to be objective-minded,[49] goal-minded (not gold-minded though!)

Education, including comparative education, cannot be reduced just to one or two dimensions of the total educative process. A proper concept (and precept) of education including comparative education, is:

1. - curriculum-centered;
2. - method-centered;
3. - agents-centered;
4. - aims-centered.

One-dimensional vision of education, of comparative education, of teacher development through comparative education, of man and his environment, might result in a manysided[50] frustration of the teaching profession and life itself, namely: compulsory miseducation,[51] miseducation of teachers,[52] multiversity or academic marketplace,[53] vanishing adolescent,[54] education for alienation,[55] growing up absurd,[56] sheepskin psychosis,[57] generation gap or conflict of generations,[58] teen-age tyranny,[59] learning without teaching,[60] teaching without learning,[61] the agony of the left,[62] student power,[63] the academic revolution,[64] the reforming of general education,[65] revolution in education,[66] university in turmoil,[67] the student revolution: a global confrontation,[68] and, of course, the varieties of psychedelic[69] experience (instead of the varieties of religious[70] experience!), etc., etc., etc.

In 1954, the speaker was asked by the Executive Committee of the Fifth Inter-American Congress of Education to present (in English and Spanish) a comparative[71] analysis of the total educative process, including the curriculum, the methods, the agents and the aims. In this Congress, our scope is much more limited. Because of the time factor, we are compelled to restrict our discussion to only one dimension of the educational thinking and doing, namely, the aims, and only to one continent, namely Europe. The study of the educational aims is closely related to the educational and economical planning,[72] prospective pedagogy,[73] guidance,[74] politics of education,[75] internal and external organization and administration of the total educative process,[76] utopian[77] approach to education, etc. The aims constitute one of the main spearheads as well as one of the main yardsticks of the educational thinking and doing.[78] The previous speakers of this Congress, namely Prof. Viktor Zubov and Zoya Malkova, were stressing already the necessity of a yardstick-- tertium comparationis-- in comparative education. It's difficult to compare without having any measure.[79] Up to now, Europe tried almost all possible measures and models of man and education, therefore, may the teachers and, first of all, comparative educators of the world learn to turn their eyes and ears towards Europe, towards the efflorescence and effervescence of the European[80] millenia-old educational insights and aims and their mankind-wide impact![81]

Europe is one of the most complex and complicated, mythical and mysterious, buoyant and flamboyant continents. It is a continent of great scholars, scientists, sages, seers, singers and swingers, saints and sinners. Europe is a school of mankind (it's probably the best definition or redefinition of Europe!), a school of mankind both in the negative and positive sense. A school of mankind because of so many virtues to be admired and acquired. A school of mankind because of so many vices to be avoided and averted.

At first glance, Europe seems to be a riddle enshrouded in a mystery inside an enigma. Europe is so multidimensional! Europe involves so many factors: Semitic,[82] Celtic,[83] Balto-Scandinavian,[84] Slavic,[85] Germanic,[86] Greek,[87] Roman,[88] Islamic,[89] Judaeo-Christian,[90] medieval,[91] modern,[92] post-modern,[93] West-European,[94] Central-European,[95] East-European,[96] etc. The Study of Europe is most exhilarating and exciting because it is related to the rest of the world: Africa,[97] Asia,[98] Australia,[99] the Americas.[100]

At the first glance, the European educational movement[101] seems to be a labyrinth or even Dante's Inferno with its frightening inscription:

> Lasciate ogni speranza voi ch'entrate[102]...
> All hope abandon, you who enter here...

We are going to see that to deal with the European educational aims means to walk on four eruptive Vesuvius-like volcanos. We are going to see quite soon that to try to explore and explain foundationally the European educational aims means to try to present a hair-splitting, hair-raising and, we might say, hell-raising analysis of four unusual thought revolutions[103] that shook and are still shaking Europe, the United States, the New World, the West, the East, the globe.

The first revolution in the modern European educational aims begins with the emergence of the so-called culture-centered pedagogy, championed by the leading European humanists, hommes des lettres and their followers: from Petrarch to Erasmus, from Erasmus to Humboldt, from Humboldt to Wullamowitz-Moellendorf, Nestle, Werner Jaeger, Livingstone, Richard Meister, Highet, etc. Back to culture! Back to cultural efficiency! Back to cultural excellence!-- These are the slogans of the first revolution in European education.

The cultured-centered educational aims were challenged, bombarded, canonaded by the nature-centered pedagogy, its exponents and their followers: Rabelais, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, the eighteenth century physiocrats, the twentieth century economists. Back to nature! Back to its exploration, back to its exploitation! Back to economic efficiency!-- These are the slogans of the second revolution in the European educational aims.

The problem of the aims and objectives in modern European education became much more complicated, complex (and perplex!) with the emergence of Pestalozzian and Froebelian pedagogy. Both Pestalozzi and Froebel represent the so-called society-centered education. Back to society! Back to social participation! Back to social involvement! Back to social commitment! Back to social efficiency!-- These are the slogans of the third revolution in the European educational aims. The society-centered pedagogy was echoed and re-echoed throughout Europe, the West, the East and the globe. John Dewey, Georg Kerschensteiner, Makarenko and so on are to be considered as the offsprings and the torch-bearers of the third revolution movement in European education.

Towards the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, Europe began to brew, boil and bubble. Europe now was gripped, was electrified, (not electrocuted, though!) by a new trend of creative thought. Brentano's book dealing with the *phenomenological or experiential approach to psychology* appeared in 1874,[104] Dilthey's *Introduction to the Study of Human Sciences* appeared in 1883,[105] Bergson's *Essay on the Immediate Data of Consciousness* appeared in 1889,[106] Ehrenfels' *Gestalt Qualities*[107] appeared in 1890, Husserl's *Logical Investigations*[108] appeared in 1900, Spranger's *Patterns of Life*[109] appeared in 1914, Jasper's *General Psychopathology*[110] appeared in 1913, Wust's *The Resurrection of Metaphysics*[111] appeared in 1920, Heidegger's *Being and Time*[112] appeared in 1927, Bergson's *The Two Sources of Morality and Religion*[113] appeared in 1932, etc., etc., etc. Towards the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, Europe began man's search for meaning of life. Europe made some unusually deep and successful plunges into the ultimate dimensions of human experience and existence. Religion was discovered as a central value system by means of which man is able to relate himself meaningfully to the totality of reality. Towards the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, European pedagogy was shifting slowly from nature-centeredness, culture-centeredness, society-centeredness, activity-centeredness to life-centeredness, vitality-centeredness, Dasein-centeredness, existence-centeredness, creativity-centeredness. The life-centered thinking, known in Europe under different names as: Lebensphilosophie, vitalism, globalism, holism, configurationism, intergrationism, etc., was a prelude to what is actually described as *existentialism*. The very key-note of vitalism is the principle of integration, the very key-note of existentialism is the principle of integrity. Therefore, the very quintessence of the movement can be distilled (and instilled!) condensed and transmitted in one single sentence: "*Integration through integrity*." Back to the primary central and ultimate well-springs of life and existence! Back to integration of man and his environment through integrity! Back to personal and social self-renewal![114] These are the slogans of the fourth and of the most recent revolution in the European feeling, thinking, striving and doing. The existentialist[115] revolution shook Europe and is still shaking Europe, the West, the East and the world. This revolution has found its overwhelming volcanic expression and explosion in the so-called "*Academic revolution.*"[116] From Columbia[117] University to University of California,[118] from *Berlin to Berkeley*,[119] from Moscow to Mexico,[120] from New York to New Delhi,[121] from Paris[122] to Peking,[123] the academic horizons seem to be storm-gathering, thunderous, fulminous (like the skies over the City of Ottawa, just now, during the delivery of my paper!). *Quo vadis, Academia*?[125] O tempora, o mores, ubi sunt nostri professores? (Of course this is Latin, but I must confess to you very sincerely that all my daily prayers are in Latin because I think that the devil does not understand Latin! ... And, by the way, this Congress is very fortunate to have such outstanding latinists life Prof. William W. Brickman!). The European educational aims and objectives cannot be understood without taking into consideration the two main dimensions of the totality of school reality, namely: the *psychological* and the *sociological*. Therefore, the considerate and compassionate teachers of the dawning New Age will begin to study *human nature in all its aspects and in all its environmental constellations*. They will learn how to factorize, sectorize and vectorize their schools, their society, their students, their environment, and (of course first of all!), themselves. Man is a multi-dimensional being, that is, a *four-dimensional* being. To promote his physical and material welfare, he needs an economic environment. To promote his intellectual, mental development, he needs a cultural environment. To promote his moral and interpersonal development, he needs a social environment. Finally, to promote his existential development, he needs a religious or integrative environment. As we see, man is immersed and deeply anchored not in one, not in two, not in three, but in four environmental realms. He lives in nature, in culture, in society and in the City of God. The above-mentioned factors, taken together and properly correlated, constitute the concept of the whole environment. These factors are distinguishable but inseparable because they converge in, and radiate from, the same self-actualizing human nature.

We can now discern, detect and define the European educational aims and objectives as they are viewed from without, namely, in the light of sociological and environmental factors. It means a proper development and a fitting co-ordination of economic efficiency, cultural efficiency, social efficiency and existential or integrative efficiency, into a functioning unit. It is a state of oneness whereby all the outer forces of life work together harmoniously for the development of the whole and wholesome environment, for a well-balanced creative way of life.

In order to discern, define and discuss the European aims and objectives from within, or psychologically, a short analysis of human personality and its factors is necessary.

The contemporary human sciences list and discuss four major personality factors. These are: body, mind, character, and their integration or personality: id., ego, super-ego and their integration or the self; feeling, thinking, doing and their integration or conscience. The last factor signifies the integration of man through integrity. It signifies the ultimate dimension of human nature, and, therefore, is considered as the very core of human personality, as the innermost nucleus of human selfhood, of human identity. That's why the foremost Russian educator Konstantin Dmitrievich Ushinsky,[126] known as "the Russian Pestalozzi," makes the following statement.[127]

> The aim of education is to illumine the conscience of man
> and show him clearly the road to the good.

The Viennese psychologist and psychiatrist, Igor Caruso, arrives at a similar conclusion.[128]

> Ein Wissen ueber den Menschen ohne Wissen ueber sein Gewissen
> ist ein scheinbares - A knowledge of man without knowledge of
> his conscience is an illusory one.

The conscience-centered, integrity-centered, authenticity-centered vision of man is found in the writings of Gordon W. Allport,[129] Nikolai Berdyaev,[130] Medard Boss,[131] Martin Buber,[132] Fyodor M. Dostoyevsky,[133] Viktor E. Frankl,[134] Gabriel Marcel,[135] Jacques Maritain,[136] Albert Schweitzer,[137] Vladimir S. Solovyov,[138] Eduard Spranger,[139] Pierre Teilhard de Chardin,[140] Paul Tillich,[141] Leo N. Tolstoy,[142] Paul Tournier,[143] etc.

The discovery of conscience signifies a landmark in the history of the European human consciousness. Dostoyevsky was launching the following slogan: "Krasota spasiot mir - Beauty will save the world." He was launching this slogan because he believed in world law and world harmony.[144] He believed in the power of conscience to transform, to transfigure both man and society, to transform, to transfigure the world.[145] According to Viktor E. Frankl, the conscience is the inner organ to grasp the meaning of life and existence.[146] It is also the organ of inner and outer reconciliation[147] and self-consistency.[148]

We can now discern, detect and define the European educational aims and objectives from a psychological[149] standpoint or in the terms of psychological factors. It is a proper development and a fitting co-ordination of the powers of the body, mind, character and integrity into a functioning unit. It is a state of oneness whereby the powers of feeling, thinking, doing and conscience, work together harmoniously to produce the whole and wholesome man. To educate means to suscitate and distribute life in its infinite variety and fullness. Education for fullness of life!

The above-given two definitions, psychological and sociological or environmental, can now be combined into one single definition to express the general or universal aim of European education. It is the development of the whole man in creative interaction, encounter or interplay with the whole environment. This definition might serve us as a very good anchorage point and a guiding star to remove so many booby-traps, obstacles, pitfalls in education, in comparative education, in teacher development through comparative education!

If the aim of education is the development of the whole man in creative interaction or interplay with the whole environment, then education is much more than just gathering information or giving-receiving information. Much, much more! Education is not only information, but: information, formation, reformation and transformation; basically, transformation of the educand into his own educator.[150]

Like the good doctor, the good teacher proves his professional efficiency by making himself unnecessary, superfluous as soon as possible! Education, as we saw, signifies a multi-dimensional human efficiency, involvement, commitment, self-actualization. The teaching talent means, first of all, teacher's ability to discern, detect and develop a student's potential to its maximum. Creativity, therefore, is a key element in education. Educationally speaking, creativity could be defined as *the whole and wholesome man in reaction, action and interaction*.[151] Without the element of creativity, both the teachers and their students might begin to talk to themselves in the school (or not talk at all!), or outside the school (and, then, too many psychiatrists might be needed!). At the beginning of this Congress, I was stating that the teachers and their students could and should be the beacons and the bugles, the lights and the lightnings of the dawning creative age. The teachers are to be considered not only as the mediators between the subject-matter and the student, but what is much more important - *the mediators between the student and the world*. A creative teacher[152] is a *torch-lighter* (not a fire-extinguisher, not a fireman!). The teachers and their students are destined to help to change, to transform the world. *In the educative process, the persons are to be transformed into characters and personalities, and the societies are to be transformed into communities and communions. The alienated bourgeois individualism is to be transformed into the enlightened personalism, and the totalitarian collectivism or mass society is to be transformed into the pluralism or universalism*.

> Bourgeois individualism is done for. What will assume full importance for the man of tomorrow are the vital connections of man with society, that is, not only the social environment but also common work and common good. The problem is to replace the individualism of the bourgeois era not by totalitarianism or the sheer collectivism of the beehive but by a personalistic and communal civilization, grounded on human rights and satisfying the social aspirations and needs of man. Education must remove the rift between the social claim and the individual claim within man himself.[153]

The teachers and their students are destined to help to change, to transform the world. And the Academic Revolution of today presents a golden opportunity[154] for all the academic teachers, and for the academic teachers of teachers, that is, for the professors in the faculties of education in particular. Within the next few decades, Spain for example, might stand in the very forefront of the school progress, because of the fact that, in the future, 15 academic institutions will be supposed to take care of the pedagogical preparation or development of the academics as well as to delve into the very depths of the foundational educational research (and search!). Spain, the homeland of the pioneer of comparative education bridges between the emerging United Europe and the rising Latin American countries. The paramount question will be that of the universities.

> In a post-industrial society, the University, because it is the place where theoretical knowledge is codified and tested, increasingly becomes a primary, if not the central institution of the society.[156]

The universities, their teachers, their students are destined to be the potential and potent agents of social change as well as of social stability. Not just any kind of change is good, of course, (sickness, war, death, etc., are changes too!...). Stability without change means stagnation, but change without stability means drift or even chaos, disarray, anarchy. Therefore, the world has to be changed according to the unchangeable principles, namely, those of universal liberty, those of universal equality, those of universal fraternity, those of universal peace.

If the aim of education is the development of the whole man in creative interaction or interplay with the whole environment, then the prospective teachers will easily, very easily, I think, understand that education begins where and when psychology and sociology will meet, converge and interact. *In education, psychology without sociology means man without his environment, and sociology without psychology means man's environment without man!* Where there is no man, there is no education! Education is a life-long process (from womb to tomb). And education is simply miseducation unless it turns into *self-education* and, namely, as soon as possible. The educand will never become a full-fledged adult unless he becomes *self-educative*! *Education is life and life is education*:

that's what education[157] will tend to be, let's say in 1980 A.D., in 2000 A.D., in 2070 A.D., etc. The concept of education, of teacher education, of teacher education through comparative education is not to be fragmentized, fractioned (and fractured!). The comparatists should not consider their comparative education as a kind of appendix of social and behavioral sciences. In such a case, the comparative education appendix might turn into a very painful appendicitis both for the teachers and their students. In education, the totality of human sciences[158] as well as the totality of the reality[159] are to be taken into consideration.

If the aim of education is the development of the whole man in creative interaction or interplay with the whole environment, then the prospective teachers will find out easily that the whole of the educational environment cannot be reduced just to the national environment. The comparative teachers -willy nilly- have to know the world! Today, we need badly a world-wide vision of comparative education. Under the impact of this First World Congress of Comparative Education, the 20th century comparative educational thinking and doing will, eventually, never be the same. National walls are beginning to crumble! The educational visions of so many countries and continents are beginning to converge and, eventually, result in a world-wide multi-coloured rainbow. The Centre of Comparative Education of the University of Ottawa holds that education of man, education of nations and education of mankind are, of course, distinguishable and distinct, but interdependent and inseparable. The slogan of the Centre is: Ex omnibus unum - Out of All One. One in all and all in one. Comparative education is to be man-centered, nation-centered and mankind-centered. Mankind-centered means: Europe-centered, Africa-centered, Asia-centered, Australia-centered, Oceania-centered, Americas-centered. The interrelationship between men, nations and mankind is the interrelationship between the cells, the organs and the organism. To destroy the cells means to destroy the organs and the organism: to destroy the organs means to destroy the cells and the organism; to destroy the organism means to destroy the cells and the organs. Today, we expect new educational insights and impacts from Asia, Africa, Australia, the Americas, from a new European science of being or ontology, deeply rooted in a new science of values.[160]

> The emerging world education will need African simplicity and naturalness; the European finesse d'esprit, mental depth and culture; the American technological efficiency, organizational genius and the spirit of civilization; the Asian illuminating insights into the totality of reality, the spirit of existential integrativeness and self-transcendance. The African world-vision is predominantly nature-centered. The European world-vision is predominantly culture-centered. The Asian world-vision predominantly existence-centered, religion-centered. The nature-centeredness, the culture-centeredness, the civilization-centeredness and existence-centeredness constitute the four cornerstones upon which the permanent, everlasting edifice of world culture, of world education can be solidly and unshakably built. Man and mankind of the future will need four fundamental cultures: the natural or scientific, the human or humanistic, the humane or humanitarian, philanthropic and the divine or existential. The first world culture will result from the investigation of nature, cosmos, universe; the second world culture will result from the investigation of man, human personality; the third world culture will result from the investigation of nations and mankind; the fourth world culture will result from the investigation of health and sickness, of the forces of divisiveness and wholeness, harmfulness and wholesomeness, disintegration and integration, death and life, death and ressurection. The four fundamental cultures are not exclusive, but inclusive, not contradictory but contrary and complementary. Plato and Aristotle, Moses Maimonides and Dante Alighieri, Nicolaus Cusanus and Nicolaus Copernicus, Albert Einstein and Albert Schweitzer are men of four cultures, are the whole or universal men.[161]

The phenomenon of the multiformity of man, nations and mankind is a most exciting and inspiring factor in our planet! The nations[162] are man's bridges towards mankind, and vice versa, mankind's bridges towards man. Man-nations-mankind: taken together, they constitute variety in unity and unity in variety. Those who neglect or overlook man as the subject of education can read Man as the Subject of Education by K.N. Ushinsky,[163] The Education of Man, by Friedrich Froebel,[164] On Liberty, by John Stewart Mill,[165] The Phenomenon of Man, by Pierre Teilhard de Chardin,[166] Man's Search for Meaning by Viktor E. Frankl[167] and meditate the following passage from the Constitution of UNESCO:

> "Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed."

Those who neglect or overlook the nations as the subject of education can read The Driving Forces in the Education of Nations by Friedrich Schneider,[168] The Education of Nations by Robert Ulich,[169] The Third World by Mario Rossi,[170] The Role of Education in Developing Societies by Adam Curle,[171] Education and the Development of Nations by Robert W. Burns,[172] The Great Ascent by Robert L. Neilbroner,[173] etc. Those who neglect or overlook mankind as the subject of education, can study Gandhi's life and work, Schweitzer's life and work, can read UNESCO's Charter, the United Nations Charter and Pacem in Terris.[174] This is a luminous guidepost[175] for our century because it presents the whole of mankind as one single family, linked together spiritually by the ideal of the universal fatherhood of God and the universal brotherhood of men. I confess before this audience sincerely, that I am, although unworthy, a disciple of John XXIII, and because he was instrumental in preventing Armageddon, that is, the third world war,[176] I am sure that his spirit is today here with us, is among us, is soaring above us.

At the unveiling of the memorial to Pushkin, Dostoyevsky delivered an address which made him famous throughout Russia, Europe and the world. At the end of his speech, he expressed the Russian spiritual nostalgia for the reconciliation of Russia with Europe.[177] This idea is the very keynote of the writings and teachings of Dostoyevsky's intimate friend[178] and the foremost Russian ecumenist Vladimir S. Solovyov.[179] Today as Yesterday, Europe holds the key for world peace. The very keynote of world peace, of world reconciliation is hidden in the ideal of liberty,[180] equality and fraternity of all men and of all nations, big and small, rich and poor, western and eastern, northern and southern, white and coloured, developed and developing.[181] Ex omnibus unum - Out of all one. One in all and all in one. Nor is the emerging world of China (or Chinas) to be considered as the enemy of man and mankind because hostility will cause not less but more (and more and more.... ad infinitum!...) hostility.

3. The Comparative Educator: from Armageddon to Aquarius

> Not the Power Man, not the Profit Man, not
> the Mechanical Man, but the Whole Man, must
> be the central actor in the new drama of
> civilization.
>
> Lewis Mumford,
> In the Name of Sanity, 1954.

> Out of the distance of time appears something different, the third revolution -
> the revolution of spirit!
>
> Vladimir Mayakovsky (1893-1930).

We feel or not, we know or not, we want or not, we believe or not, our tempestuous and tumultuous planet is moving towards world community, world civilization, world education.[182] It is moving slowly from national solitudes to global solidarity. It is moving very, very slowly from the nightmares of the eventual Armageddon to the Age of Acquarius and, therefore, to the era of the comparative educator and consequently the era of comparative education in teacher education is dawning. The prospective teachers, studying comparative education, can learn how to discern, detect and discuss the strong points and weak points in their national educational systems, their countries and themselves. They can learn how to transcend their local, their parochial, municipal, provincial, national, continental, intercontinental, hemispheric views and visions, structures and strictures. They can learn how to combine Western science and Eastern wisdom, can learn how to reconcile the spirit of the Occidental Croesus-like affluence,[183] abundance,[184] prosperity and the spirit of the Oriental Buddha-like,[185] Tao-like,[186] Zen-like,[187] Yoga-like,[188] Gandhi-like,[189] samadhi-like,[190] blissfulness, beatitudes, ecstasy, felicity. They can learn how to prepare the encounter and dialogue of world cultures and world religions.[191] They can learn how to pave the way for the emerging world federalism,[192] and world ecumenism,[193] for the emerging cosmopolis[194] and ecumenopolis.[195] They can learn how to build the City of Man in such fashion that it would mirror the eternal truths and values of the City of God.

Professor A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Ph.D.,
Director of the Comparative Education Centre
and Vice-Dean of the Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa,
President of the World Education Fellowship (WEF) - Canada

FOOTNOTES

[1] André Siegfried, *Le Canada Puissance Internationale*. Paris: Librairie Colin, 1947. Bruce Hutchison, *Canada: Tomorrow's Giant*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1957.

[2] Paul G. Cornell, Jean Hamelin et Fernand Ouellet, *Canada: unité et diversité*. Montréal: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968.

[3] Raymond H. Shevenell, *The Faculty of Psychology and Education of the University of Ottawa*, *The Canadian Psychologist*, January 1962. Cf. Henri Légaré, *Your University: A Report to the Alumni of the University of Ottawa*, Ottawa, 1965, p. II: "*We are engaged upon a great and serious venture - nothing less than the development of a University that is a reflection of Canada herself, bilingual, living, growing. We are developing a national resource in the National Capital.*"

[4] Gregory Baum, *That They May Be One*. Westminster, Md.: Newman Press, 1958. Augustin Bea, *Unity in Freedom: Reflections on the Human Family*. New York: Harper & Row, 1965. Robert McAfee Brown, *The Ecumenical Revolution*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co. 1967. Antoine Paplauskas Ramunas, *Dialogue entre Rome et Moscou*. Preface du Cardinal Koenig. Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1966.

[5] Cf. R. Arès, *Le féderalisme. Ses principes de base et sa valeur humaine*. Montréal: Bellarmin, 1951. Maurice Lamontagne, *Le féderalisme canadien; évolutions et problèmes*. Québec: Presses Universitaires Laval, 1954. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *Le test canadien: discorde ou concorde*, *La Presse*, Montréal, 5 avril 1961. Gérard Pelletier (éd), *Réponses de Pierre* Elliott Trudeau. Montreal: *Editions du Jour*, 1968. Pierre Elliott Trudeau, *Le féderalisme et la société canadienne-francaise*. Montréal: Editions H.M.H., 1967.

[6] Max Lerner, *The Age of Overkill*. New York: Simon & Shuster, 1962. Richard Fryklund, *100 Million Lives: Maximum Survival in a Nuclear War*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1962.

[7] L.K. Frank, *Society as the Patient*. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1948. Erich Fromm, *May Man Prevail?* Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co. Harold D. Laswell, *Psychopathology and Politics*. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

[8] Cf. Jules Moch, *Human Folly: To disarm or Perish*. London: Gollancz, 1955. John Desmond Bernal, *World Without War*. New York: Monthly Review Press, 1959.

[9] Martin Buber, *La vie en dialogue*. Paris: Aubier, 1959. M.K. Gandhi, *All Men Are* Brothers. Paris: UNESCO, 1958. John XXIII, *Pacem in Terris*. Glen Rock, N.J.: Paulist Press. Albert Schweitzer, *Peace or Atomic War?* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1958. Cf. Barbara Ward, *Towards a World of Plenty*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, p. 78: "It is my profound belief that in the long run nations survive by what they do right, by what moral directions they follow, and not simply by the enlightenment of their self-interest... We have had a world that we have controlled and at the end we have produced societies that can hardly run themselves." Cf. James G. Eayrs, *Right and Wrong in Foreign Policy*. Toronto University of Toronto Press, 1966.

[10] Cf. Hans Reichenbach, *Atom and Cosmos*. New York: George Braziller, 1957. D.S. Halacy, *The Coming Age of Solar Energy*. New York: Harper & Row, 1963. Id. *Colonization of the Moon*. Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand, 1968. Fred Warshofsky, *The 21st Century: The New Age of Exploration*. New York: The Viking Press, 1969.

[11] Cf. Peter Drucker, *The End of Economic Man*. New York: The John Day Co., 1939. Id. *The Future of Industrial Man*. New York: The John Day Co., 1942. Herbert Marcuse, *One-Dimensional Man*. Boston. Mass.: Beacon Press, 1964.

[12] Romano Guardini, *End of the Modern World*. Chicago, Ill.: Henry Regnery Co., 1967.

[13] Don Toppin (ed.), *This Cybernetic Age*. New York: Human Development Corporation, 1970.

[14] Kurt F. Reinhardt, *The Existentialist Revolt*. New York: Frederick Ungar Publishing Co., 1966. John Wild, *The Challenge of Existentialism*. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press, 1966.

[15] Cf. André Stéphane, *L'Univers contestataire ou les mouveaux chrétiens*. Paris: Payot, 1969. Nicolas Berdiaev, Un nouveau moyen âge. Paris: Plon-Nourrit, 1927.

[16] Gregory Baum, *That They May Be One*. Westminster, Md., Newman Press, 1958.

[17] Cf. Henry Enoch Kagan, *Six Who Changed the World*. New York: A.S. Barnes-Thomas Joseloff, 1963. H. Buckmaster, *Paul: A Man Who Changed the World*. N.Y.: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965. Edward W. Weidner, *The World Role of Universities*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962.

[18] Cf. Michael Novak, *The Experience of Nothingness*. New York: Harper & Row, 1970. Helmuth Kuhn, *Encounter with Nothingness*. N.Y.: College Library Publishers, 1951. Helmut Thielicke, *Nihilism: Its Origin and Nature, with a Christian Answer*. New York: Harper & Row, 1961.

[19] Ralph E. Lapp, *Kill and Overkill: The Strategy of Annihilation*. New York: Basic Books, 1962. Herman Kahn, *Thinking about Unthinkable*. N.Y.: Horizon Press, 1962.

[20] Fritz Baade, *The Race to the Year 2000: A Paradise or the Suicide of Mankind.* Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1962.

[21] Franz Alexander, *Our Age of Unreason*. Philadelphia, Pa.: Lippincott, 1951. Max Horkheimer, *Eclipse of Reason*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1947.

[22] Bertrand Russell, *Common Sense and Nuclear War*. N.Y.: Simon & Shuster, 1959. Cf. Jacques Ellul, *The Technological Society*. N.Y.: Alfred A. Knopf, 1964, John Wild (ed.), *The Return to Reason*. Chicago, Ill: Henry Regnery, 1953.

[23] Cf. Joseph Ledit, *Rise of the Downtrodden*. Boston, Mass.: St. Paul Editions, 1962. Frantz Fanon, *The Wretched of the Earth*, N.Y.: The Grove Press, 1966.

[24] Hans Kohn, *The Age of Nationalism: The First Era of Global History*. N.Y.: Harper & Row, 1962. Cf. Abba Eban, *New Nations and World Order*. Santa Barbara Calif.: Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions, 1964. A. Baker Fox, *Power of Small States*, Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1959. H. Labouret, *Colonisation, colonialisme, decolonisation*. Paris: Larose, 1952. H. Kohn & W. Skolsky, *African Nationalism in the* Twentieth Century. N.Y.: Harper & Row, 1962. Boris Meissner, *Die Sowjetunion, die baltischen Staaten und das Voelkerrecht*. Koeln: Verlag fuer Politik und Wirtschaft, 1956. A.G. Mezerik, *Colonialism and the United Nations-decolonization Declaration*. N.Y.: *International Review Service,* 1964.

[25] Jan & Jan Erik Romein, *The Asian Century: A History of Modern Nationalism in Asia*. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1963.

[26] Cf. Giuseppe A. Borgese, *Foundations of the World Republic*. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Robert M. Hutchins, *St. Thomas Aquinas and the World State*. Milwaukee, Wisc.: Marquette University Press, 1949. Richard A. Falk, *Legal Order in a Violent World*. Princeton, N.Y.: Princeton University Press, 1970. Walter Schiffer, *Legal Community of Mankind*. N.Y.: Columbia University Press, 1954.

[27] Cf. Pierre Uri, *Dialogue des continents*. Paris: Plon, 1963. Louis Retif, *Vivre c'est dialoguer*. Paris: Fleurus, 1964.

[28] Cf. Walter Hallstein, United Europe: Challenge and Opportunity. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1962. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Vers l'integration pedagogique de l'Europe, Bulletin Europeen. Tribune libre de l'Europeisme. Rome, juin-juillet, 1959.

[29] G.E. Haynes, Africa: Continent of the Future. N.Y.: Association Press, 1951. Mario Rossi, The Third World: The Unaligned Countries and the World Revolution. N.Y.: Funk & Wagnalls, 1961.

[30] Thomas Welty, The Asians: Their Heritage and Their Destiny. Philadelphia, Pa.: J.B. Lippincott, 1963. Ruth Anschen and Ernst Jaekh (eds.) Mid-East: World Center, Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow. New York: Harper, 1956.

[31] Hans Lionel Williams, Fantastic South America: Continent of the Future. New York: Horizon Press, 1958. Salvador de Madariaga, Latin America between the Eagle and the Bear. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press. Frank Tannenbaum, Ten Keys to Latin America. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962.

[32] Cf. Bruce Hutchison, Canada: Tomorrow's Giant. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1957. Adelaide Leitch, Canada: Young Giant of the North. Agincourt, Ontario; Nelson, Foster & Scott, 1965. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Canada at the Dawn of a New Age, Ottawa: O.U. Alumni Bulletin, December, 1964.

[33] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Comparative Education in Canadian Universities: The Teaching of Comparative Education. Proceedings of the Second Annual Conference on Comparative Education, New York University. School of Education, New York University, 1955. Id. Comparative Education in the Canadian Universities, Scientia Paedagogica: Review of the International Secretariat for Teaching Educational Sciences in Universities, October, 1955.

[34] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Le loisir: problème des hommes libres d'aujourd'hui et de demain. Ottawa: Editions de l'Université d'Ottawa, 1964.

[35] Cf. Roy A. Matthews, Canada: The International Nation, Queens Quarterly: A Canadian Review, Autumn, 1965.

[36] William B. Cunningham, Canada, the Commonwealth and the Common Market, Montreal, Quebec: McGill University Press, 1962. H. Ian Macdonald: Canada in Two Hemispheres. Toronto: Canadian Institute of International Affairs, 1964. Claude Julien, Canada: Europe's Last Chance. Toronto: Macmillan Company of Canada, 1968.

[37] H.F. Angus, Canada and the Far East, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1953. James G. Eayrs, Canada in World Affairs. Don Mills, Ontario: Oxford University Press, 1965.

[38] Adelaide Leitch, Canada: Young Giant of the North. Agincourt, Ontario: Nelson, Foster & Scott, 1965. Tim Buck, Canada and the Russian Revolution. Toronto: Progress Books, 1948.

[39] Marcel Roussin, Le Canada et le systeme interamericain. Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1959. Norman L. Nicholson, Canada in the American Community. Toronto: D. Van Nostrand (Canada), 1963.

[40] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Erziehung in Kanada (Education in Canada, in German). Lexikon der Paedagogik (Encyclopaedia of Educational Sciences), vol. II, Freiburg i. Br. Herder Verlag, 1970. Cf. Hans Espe, Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft. (Comparative Education, in German), Berlin, Orbis, 1956. Friedrich Schneider, Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft. (Comparative Education, in German), Heidelberg: Quelle and Meyer, 1961. Alexandre Vexliard, La pedagogie comparee. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1967.

[41] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Canadian University at the Dawn of a New Age, The Fulcrum, December 23, 1966. Id., La mission de l'universite, Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1952.

[42] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, La mission olympique du Canada. Les Jeux Olympiques au Canada - 1976. Montreal, Quebec, Le Devoir, 14 novembre 1968. Id. Toward a New Era in Physical Education, (Editorial), Bulletin of the International Federation of Physical Education, No. 1, 1956. Id. Vers la renaissance physique du Canada francais. Les Jeunes, Paris, septembre 1961.

[43] Ferdinand Lundberg, *The Coming World Transformation*, Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1963. L. Mumford, *The Transformation of Man*, New York: Harper, 1956. Pitirim A. Sorokin, *Reconstruction of Humanity*. Boston, Mass.: Beacon Press, 1948.

[44] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *Canada's Educational Revolution*, *The New Era: The World Education Fellowship Journal*, London (England), January 1968. Id. *L'education moderne: les orages, naufrages et presages. La vision rétrospective, introspective et prospective de l'éducation canadienne*. Présances, Journal cultural interuniversitaire à la recherche de solutions aux problemes sociaux contemporains, vol. 7, no. 3, avril 1961. Cf. Sir Winston Churchill's message delivered on January 14, 1952, in Ottawa: *"Upon the whole surface of the globe there is no more spacious and splendid domain open to the activity and genius of free men, with one hand clasped in enduring friendship with the United States and the other spread across the ocean both to Britain and France. You have a sacred mission to discharge. That you will be worthy of it, I do not doubt. God bless you all."* Cf. Dr. Wilder Penfield, Alliance, Education and National Forum, The Second Canadian Conference on Education, Toronto, Ont.: University of Toronto Press, 1962, p. 148: *"We want Canada to lead the world in the organization and efficiency of national education. We believe she could lead the world intellectually, with wise planning."*

[45] Cf. Grenville Clark & Louis B. Sohn, *World Peace Through World Law*. 2nd edition, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960. Cyril E. Black and Richard A. Falk (eds.), *The Future of the International Legal Order*, Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1970.

[46] Cf. W.F. Mackey, *Bilingualism as a World Problem*, Montreal, Que.: Harvest House, 1967.

[47] Cf. Saul B. Robinsohn, *Bildungsreform als Révision des Curriculum* (Educational Reform as Revision of the Curriculum in German). Neuwied-Berlin: Luchterhand Verlag, 1967.

[48] Cf. Norman R.F. Maier, *Frustration: The Study of Behavior Without a Goal*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949.

[49] Benjamin S. Bloom & D.R. Kraftwohl, *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, 2 vols. New York: David McKay, 1956-1964. Cf. Talcott Parsons & Edward E. Shils (eds.) *Toward a General Theory of Action*, Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1951.

[50] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *L'education moderne: les orages, naufrages et presages. La vision retrospective, introspective et prospective de la crise scolaire*, (Modern Education: The Storms, Shipwrecks and Predictions. Retrospective, Introspective and Prospective Vision of the School Crisis). *Presances*, Journal culturel interuniversiatire a la recherche de solutions aux problemes sociaux contemporains, vol. 7, no. 3., avril 1961.

[51] Paul Goodman, *Compulsory Miseducation*, New York, Horizon Press.

[52] James D. Koerner, *The Miseducation of American Teachers*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1963. Cf. James B. Conant, *The Education of American Teachers*, New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1963.

[53] N. Von Hoffman, *Multiversity: A Personal Report on What Happens to Today's Students in American Universities*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966. Theodore Caplow and R.J. McGee, *The Academic Marketplace*. Foreword by Jacques Marzun, New York: Basic Books, 1961.

[54] Edgar K. Friedenberg, *The Vanishing Adolescent*. Boston: The Beacon Press, 1959.

[55] Nathaniel Hickerson, *Education for Alienation*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1966, Kenneth Keniston, *The Uncommitted: Alienated Youth in American Society*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1965.

[56] Paul Goodman, *Growing Up Absurd*. New York: Random House, 1960.

[57] John Keats, *The Sheepskin Psychosis*. New York: Dell Publ. Co., 1966.

[58] Lewis S. Feuer, *The Conflict of Generations: The Character and Significance of Student Movement*. Don Mills, Ont.: General Publishing, 1959. Dennis C. Benson, *The Now Generation.* Richmond, Virginia.

[59] Grace and Fred Hechinger, *Teen-Age Tyranny*. New York: Morrow, 1963.

[60] Howard Taylor, *Students without Teachers*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1970.

[61] Charles Silbermann, *Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education*. New York: Random House, 1970.

[62] Christopher Lasch, *The Agony of the American Left*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1969.

[63] Alexander Cockburn & Robin Blackburn (eds.), *Student Power: Problems, Diagnosis, Action*. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1969.

[64] Christopher Jencks & David Riesman, *The Academic Revolution*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1968.

[65] Daniel Bell, *The Reforming of General Education*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1966.

[66] Mortimer Adler & Milton Mayer, *The Revolution in Education*. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1958.

[67] Immanuel Wallerstein, *University in Turmoil*. New York: Atheneum, 1969.

[68] Joseph A. Califano, *The Student Revolution:* A Global Confrontation. New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1970.

[69] R.E. Masters & J. Houston, *Varieties of Psychedelic Experience*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966.

[70] William James, *The Varieties of Religious Experience*. New York: The New American Library of World Literature.

[71] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *Modern Philosophies of Education-Filosofias modernas de education*. Habana (Cuba): The Executive Committee of the Fifth Inter-American Congress of Education, 1954.

[72] H. Parnes, *Forecasting Educational Needs for Economic and Social Development*. Paris: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 1962. Fritz Baade, *The Race to the Year 2000. Our Future: A Paradise or the Suicide of Mankind*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1962. Robert Guillain, *The Japanese Challenge: The Race to the Year 2000.* Philadelphia, Pa., J.B. Lippincott, 1970.

[73] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *L'educateur 1970-2000*, *Le Droit*, le 8 mars 1971. R. Drottrens, *Vers une pedagogie prospective*. Neuchatel: Delachaux & Niestle, 1961. American Academy of Arts and Letters, *Towards the Year 2000*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1967. Clarence W. Hunnicutt, *Education 2000 A.D.* Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1956. Pierre Teilhard de Chardin, *The Phenomenon of Man*. A Torchbook. New York: Harper & Row, 1959. Fred Warshofsky, *The 21st Century: The New Age of Exploration*. New York: The Viking Press, 1969.

[74] Maurice Chagnon, *Orientation professionnelle et orientation scolaire*, *Revue de l'universite d'Ottawa*, octobre-decembre 1945, M. Reuchlin, *L'Orientation pendant la periode scolaire - idees et problemes*. Paris: Conseil de la Cooperation culturelle du Conseil de l'Europe, 1964. Ellis Paul Torrance, *Education and the Creative Potential*. Minneapolis Minn.: University of Minnesota Press, 1963.

[75] Saul B. Robinsohn, *Bildungspolitik und Oeffentlichkeit* (Politics of Education and Public Policymaking - in German), Bildung und Erziehung, July-August, 1970. Torsten Husen & Gunnar Boalt, *Bildungsforschung und Schulreform in Schweden*. (Educational Research and School Reform in Sweden - in German). Stuttgart:Ernst Klett, 1968. P. Hunkin, *Enseignement et politique en France et en Angleterre*. Paris: Institut Pedagogique National, 1962. Frank MacKinnon, *The Politics of Education*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1960.

[76] Arthur W. Reeves, *Educational Administration: The Role of the Teacher* Toronto Macmillan, 1962. Frederick Mayer, *Creative Universities*. New York: College and University Press, 1961. Alexander Israel Wittenberg, *General Education as a Challenge for Creative Scholarship.* Toronto: York University Press, 1964.

[77] Plato, *Republic*, ed. by I.A. Richards, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1966. St. Thomas More, *Utopia,* ed. by Edward Surtz. New Haven, Conn: Yale University Press, 1968. Robert Owen, *Life of Robert Owen*. 2 vols. New York: American Scholar Publications, 1857-1858. Martin Buber, *Paths in Utopia*. Boston, Mass.: Beacon Press, 1958. A. Rotstein, *The Prospect of Change: Proposals for Canada's Future*. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965. Howard Ozmon, *Utopias and Education*. Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess, 1970.

[78] Cf. Jacques Maritain, *Integral Humanism*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1969. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *L'education physique dans l'humanisme integral*. 2e edition. Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1960. Rabindranath Tagore, *Towards Universal Man*. New York: Asia Publishing House, 1961. Sri Aurobindo, *Integral Yoga*. Pondicherry: Sri Aurobindo International University, 1952. H.B. Mukerjee, *Education for Fullness*. New York: Taplinger Publishing Co. (Asia Publ.).

[79] Cf. Benjamin S. Bloom, D.R. Kraftwohl, et al. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*. 2 vols. New York: David McKay Co., 1956-1964. Hans Bokelmann, *Massstaebe paedagogischen Handelns* (Yardsticks of Educational Doing - in German). Wuerzbourg: Werkbund-Verlag, 1965. Medard Boss, *Psychoanalysis and Daseinsanalysis*. New York: Basic Books, 1963. Paul Tournier, *The Whole Person in a Broken World*. London: Collins, 1965.

[80] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *Clef methodologique pour l'enseignement de l'histoire de l'education*. *L'enseignement secondaire au Canada*. Universite Laval et Universite de Montreal, janvier-fevrier 1951.

[81] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *Die paedagogische Sendung Europas*. (The Educational Mission of Europe, In German). *International Review of Education* (Editorial), No. 3, 1948/1949.

[82] Cf. Oscar Milosz, *Les origines iberiques du peuple juif*. *Oeuvres completes*, tome VII. Paris: Editions Andre Silvaire, 1961. Cyrus H. Gordon, *The Common Background of Greek and Hebrew Civilizations*. New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1965. Theophile James Meek, the *Hebrew Origins*, New York: Harper & Row, 1960. Ruth Anshen (ed.) *Mid-East: World Center, Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow*, New York: Harper, 1936. D.D. Runes, *The Hebrew Impact on Western Civilization*. New York: Citadel Press, 1965. Leon Roth, *Jewish Thought as a Factor of Civilization.* Paris: UNESCO, 1954. Gerald Hawkins, *Stonehenge Decoded*. New York: Delta Publishing Co., 1969.

[83] J.G. Clark, *Prehistoric Europe: The Economic Basis*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1966. Stewart Piggott, *Ancient Europe: From the Beginnings of Agriculture to Classical Antiquity*. Chicago, Ill.: Aldina Publishing Co., 1965. J. Filip. *Celtic Civilization and Its Heritage*. New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons. Nora K. Chadwick, *The Celt and the Saxon,* New York: Cambridge University Press, 1966. F.G.E. Powell, *Celts,* New York: Frederick A. Praeger. Nora K. Chadwick, *The Celtic Britain*, New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964. Id. *The Druids*. Mystic, Conn.: Lawrence Verry Inc., 1966.

[84] Oscar Milosz, *Les origines de la nation lithuanienne*. *Oeuvres completes*, tome IX. Paris: Editions Andre Silvaire, 1963. Gwyn Jones, *the Norse Atlantic Saga: Being the Norse Voyages of Discovery and Settlements to Iceland, Greenland and America*, London: Oxford University Press, 1964. Arnold Suekke, *The Ancient Amber Routes and the Geographical Discovery of the Eastern Baltic*, Stockholm: M. Goppers, 1957. S. Salkauskis, *Sur les confins de deux mondes*. Geneve: Atar, 1919. Pierre Joseph Gabrys, *Parente des langues hittite et lithuanienne et la prehistoire*. Geneve, Librairie de l'Universite, 1944. Suniti Kumar Chatterji, *Balts and Aryans*. Simla: Indian Institute of Advanced Studies, 1968.

[85] Francis Dvornik, *The Slave: Their Early History and Civilization*. Boston: American Academy of Arts and Letters, 1956.

[86] Gonzague de Reynold, *La formation de l'Europe*, 6 vols. Fribourg: Egloff, 1944-1949. Hajo Holborn, *A History of Germany*. 3 vols. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1969.

[87] Max Muehl, *Die antike Menschheitsidee in ihrer geschictlicher Entwicklung* (The Ancient Idea of Humanity in its Historical Evolution, in German). Leipzig: Diederich, 1928. Thorleif Boman, *Hebrew Thought Compared with Greek*. Philadelphia, Pa: Westminster Press, 1961. R.W. Livingstone, *The Greek Genius and Its Meaning to Us*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1915. Id. *The Legacy of Greece*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1921.

[88] Cyril Bailey (ed.), *The Legacy of Rome.* Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1923.

[89] Thomas Arnold & A. Guillsume (eds.), *The Legacy of Islam*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1931.

[90] Harry Austryn Wolfson, Philo: Foundations of Religious Philosophy in Judaism, Christianity and Islam. 2 vols. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1947.

[91] C.G. Crump & E.F. Jacob (eds.), The Legacy of Middle Ages. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1926.

[92] Oswald Spengler, The Decline of the West. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962.

[93] Romano Guardini, The End of the Modern World, Chicago, Ill.: Henry Regnery Co. 1967.

[94] Cf. Jacques Pirenne, Les grands courants de l'histoire universelle (The Great Currents of World History, in French), 4 vols., Neuchatel: La Baconniere, 1945.

[95] Suniti Kumar Chatterji, Balts and Aryans. Simla: Indian Institute of Advanced Studies, 1968. Miloslav Rechicigl (ed.), Czechoslovak Contribution to World Culture. New York: Humanities Press, 1964. Richard Hiscocks, Poland: Bridge for the Abyss? London: Oxford University Press, 1963. Richard Hiscocks, The Rebirth of Austria. New York: Oxford University Press, 1953. Feliks Gross, Crossroads of Two Continents: A demoncratic Federalism of East-Central Europe. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945.

[96] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Moskva: dukhovnaya stolitsa Rosii (Moscow: The Spiritual Capital of Russia, in Russian), Rosia i Vselenskaya Tserkov, mart-aprisl, 1956. Francis Dvornik, The Making of Central and Eastern Europe. London: Polish Research Centre, 1949. Adam Bromke, The Communist States at the Crossroads Between Moscow and Peking. New York: Frederick Praeger, 1964. Zbigniew Brzezinski, The Soviet Block: Unity and Conflict. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960.

[97] Mikhail I. Rostovtzeff, Social and Economic History of the Hellenistic World. 3 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1941. Gerald Hawkins and J.B. White, Stonehenge Decoded. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1966. G. Sergi, Mediterranean Race: A Study of the Origin of European Peoples. New York: Humanities Press, 1969.

[98] Cyrus H. Gordon, The Common Background of Greek and Hebrew Civilization. New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1965. J. Mellaart, Anatolia, c. 4000-2300 B.C. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Philip K. Hitti, Near East in History: A 5000 Year Story. Princeton, N.J.: V. Van Nostrand, 1961. P. Dixon, The Iberians of Spain and Their Relations with the Agean World. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1940. D.D. Runes, Hebrew Impact on Western Civilization. New York: Citadel Press, 1965.

[99] Peter H. Buck, Vikings in the Pacific. A Phoenix Book. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1959. A. Grenville Price, The Western Invasions ofthe Pacific and Its Continents. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1963. Robert C. Suggs, Hidden Worlds of Polynesia. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1962. Paul Rivet, Sumerien et oceanien. Paris, 1929. C. Tauber, Entwicklung der Menschheit von den Ur-Australiern bis Europa auf Grund der neuesten Forschungen ueber die Wanderungen der Ozeanier (Evolution of Mankind out of the Primitive Austalians, Up to Europe, on the Basis of the Most Recent Researches Concerning the Migrations of the Oceanians - in German). Zuerich and Leipzig, 1932. Richard A. Gould, Yiwara: Foragers of the Australian Desert. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1969.

[100] Gwyn Jones, The Norse Atlantic Saga: Being the Norse Voyages of Discovery and Settlements to Iceland, Greenland and America. London: Oxford University Press, 1964. Farley Mowat, Westviking. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1965. Edward P. Cheyney, European Background of American History. New York: Collier, 1962. Thor Heyerdahl, American Indians in the Pacific: The Theory Behind the Kon-Tiki Expedition. Chicago, Ill.: Rand McNally, 1953. Alvin M. Josephy, The Indian Heritage of America. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1968.

[101] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, La educacion europea en el cruce de la historia, (European Education at the Turning Point of the History, in Spanish), Revista Interamericana de Educacion, enero-febrero 1961.

[102] Dante Alighieri, The Divine Comedy. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1947, p. 11.

[103] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Clef methodologique pour l'enseignement de l'histoire de l'education (Methodological Key to Teach the History of Education, in French), L'Enseignement Secondaire au Canada. Universite Laval et Universite de Montreal, janvier-febrier, 1951.

[104] Franz Brentano, Psychologie vom empirischen Standpunkt (Psychology from the Empirical Standpoint), 1874.

[105] Wilhelm Dilthey, Einleitung in die Geisteswissenschaften, 1883.

[106] Henri Bergson, Essai sur les donnees immediates de la conscience, 1889.

[107] Christian Ehrenfels, Ueber Gestaltqualitaeten, Viertelsjahrschift fuer wissenschaftliche Philosophie, XIV, 1890, pp. 242-292.

[108] Edmund Husserl, Logische Untersuchungen. 2 vols. 1900-1901.

[109] Eduard Spranger, Lebensformen, 1914.

[110] Karl Jaspers, Allgemeine Psychopathologie, 1913.

[111] Peter Wust, Die Auferstehung der Metaphysik, 1920.

[112] Martin Heidegger, Sein und Zeit, 1927.

[113] Henri Bergson, Les deux sources de la morale et de la religion, 1932.

[114] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Canadian University at the Dawn of a New Age. The Fulcrum, November 23, 1966.

[115] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, La pedagogie aux pays de langue allemande, Revista Interamericana de Educacion, nos. 40-43, september, december 1950, Vol. IV, pp. 319-331.

[116] Christopher Jencks & David Riesman, The Academic Revolution. Garden City. N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1964.

[117] Jerry L. Avorn, et al., Up Against the Ivy Wall: A History of the Columbia Crisis. New York: Atheneum, 1969.

[118] H. Draper, Berkeley: The New Student Revolt. New York: Grove Press, 1965.

[119] Wulf Schoenbehn, et. al., Die herausgeforderte Demokratie. Deutschlands Studenten zwischen Reform and Revolution (The Challenged Democracy: The German Students Between Reform and Revolution, in German). Mainz: V. Haase und Koehler Verlag, 1968. Joseph Tussman, Experiment at Berkeley. London: Oxford University Press, 1969.

[120] D.L. Meek (ed.), Soviet Youth: Some Achievements and Problems. N.Y.: Humanities Press. Daniel Cohn-Bendit & Gabriel Cohn-Bendit, Obsolete Communism: The Left-Wing Alternative. New York: McGraw-Hill Cook Co., 1969. Herbert Marcuse, One-Dimensional Man. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1968. Tarsicio Ocampo, Mexico: Huelga de la UNAM, Marzo-mayo, 1966. Cuernavaca: Centro Intercultural de Documentacion, 1967.

[121] Aileen D. Ross, Student Unrest in India: A Comparative Approach. Montreal: McGill University Press, 1969.

[122] J.J. Servan-Schreiber, The Spirit of May. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968. Daniel Cohn-Bendit, et al., The French Student Revolt: The Leaders Speak. New York: Hill & Wang, 1968.

[123] Chou Tse-Tung, The May Fourth Movement: Intellectual Revolution in Modern China. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1963.

[124] Georges Gusdorf, *La nef des fous: universite 1968*. (The Ship of the Fools: University 1968). Quebec: Presses Universitaires Laval, 1969. CCC, *The Present Crisis in the European Society*. A debate in the Consultative Assembly with special reference to youth problems and students unrest. Strasbourg: CCC, 1968. Daniel Bell and Irving Kristol (eds.), *Confrontation: The Student Rebellion and the Universities*. New York: Basic Books, 1969, S.K. Gosh, *The Student Challenge Around the World*: London: Eastern Law House, 1969. Mark Gerzon, *The Whole World is Watching: A Young Man Looks at Youth's Dissent*. N.Y.: The Viking Press, 1969. Peter Seidmann, *Moderne Jugend als Herausforderung und Problem* (Modern Youth as a Challenge and Problem, in German), Zweite Auflage, Zuerich: Rascher, 1968.

[125] William W. Brickman and Stanley Lehrer (eds.), *Conflict and Change on the Campus: The Response to Student Hyperactivism*. New York: School and Society Books, 1970. Donald K. Emmerson (ed.), *Students and Politics in Developing Nations*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1968. L.H. Battistini, *Postwar Student Struggle in Japan, Tokyo*: Tuttle, 1956. Richard E. Peterson, *The Scope of Organized Student Protest in 1964-1965*. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1966. Herbert Stroup, *Bureaucracy in Higher Education*, New York: Free Press, 1966. Harold Taylor, *Students Without Teachers: The Crisis in the University*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969. George B. Leonard, *Education and Ecstacy*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1968.

[126] N. Hans, K.D. *Ushinsky: Russian Pioneer of Comparative Education*, International Review of Education, February, 1962.

[127] William H.E. Johnson, *Russia's Educational Heritage*. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1950, p. 240.

[128] Igor Caruso, *Psychoanalyse und Synthese der Existenz* (Psychoanalysis and Existential Synthesis, in German). Freiburg i. Br.: Herder, 1952, p. 230.

[129] Gordon W. Allport, Becoming: *Basic Considerations for Psychology of Personality*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955.

[130] Nicolas Berdyaev, *The Beginning and the End*. New York: Harper & Row, 1957.

[131] Medard Boss. *Psychoanalysis and Daseinanalysis*. New York: Basic Books, 1963.

[132] Martin Buber, *Knowledge of Man*. New York: Harper & Row, 1966.

[133] Fyodor M. Dostoyevsky, *Crime and Punishment*. New York: W.W. Norton, 1964.

[134] Viktor E. Frankl, *Man's Search for Meaning*. New York: Washington Square Press, 1963.

[135] Gabriel Marcel, *The Existential Background of Human Dignity*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1963.

[136] Jacques Maritain, *Integral Humanism*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1969.

[137] Albert Schweitzer, *Peace or Atomic War*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1958.

[138] Vladimir S. Solovyov, *Opravdanie dobra* (The Justification of the Good, in Russian), *Sobranie sochinenij*, vol. VI, S. Petersburg: Tzdanic Tovarishchestva obshchestvennaya, Pol'za, 1877-1881, pp. 169-205.

[139] Eduard Spranger, *Lebensformen* (Patterns or Models of Life, in German). 8. Auflage. Tuebingen: Neomarius Verlag, 1950.

[140] Pierre Teilhard de Chardin, *The Phenomenon of Man*. Introduction by Sir Julian Huxley. London: Collins, 1959. Id. *The Future of Man*. London: Collins, 1964.

[141] Paul Tillich, *Love, Power and Justice*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1960.

[142] Leo N. Tolstoy, *The Kingdom of God Within You, and Peace Essays*. London: Oxford University Press, 1946.

[143] Paul Tournier, *The Whole Person in a Broken World*. London: Collins, 1965.

[144] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Moskva: dukhovnaya stolitsa Rossii (Moscow: The Spiritual Capital of Russia, in Russian), Rossiya i Vselenskaya Tserkov, 2 (30), mart-apriel 1956.

[145] Vladimir N. Solovyov, Tri rechi vpamyst Dostoyevskovo (Three Speeches in Memory of Dostoyevsky, in Russian), Sobranie sochinenij, vol. III, S.-Peterburg: Izdanic Tovarishchestva obshchestvennaya, Pol'za, 1877-1881.

[146] This statement by world-renowned Viennese psychiatrist and educator was made in his public lecture, delivered at the University of Ottawa, in 1968. Cf. also: Viktor E. Frankl, From Death-Camp to Existentialism: A Psychiatrist's Path to a New Therapy. Preface by Gordon W. Allport, Boston, Mass.: Beacon Press, 1959.

[147] Cf. Carl G. Jung, The Undiscovered Self. A Mentor Book, New York: The New American Library of World Literature, 1957.

[148] Cf. Prescott Lecky, Self-Consistency. Hamden, Conn.: Shoe String Press, 1951.

[149] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, The Fundamental Principles of Integration, Proceedings of the Tenth International Catholic Migration Congress. Geneva: I.C.M.C. 1960.

[150] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, L'educateur 1970-2000. (The Educator 1970-2000 A.D. in French), Le Droit, le 8 mars, 1971.

[151] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Canadian University at the Dawn of a New Age, The Fulcrum, December 23, 1966.

[152] Cf. Frederick Mayer, Creative Universities. New York: College and University Press, 1961. Alec Clegg, Education: Mind Stocking or Fire Kindling. Toronto: Ontario Department of Education, 1966.

[153] Jacques Maritain, Education at the Crossroads. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1960, p. 89.

[154] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, L'educateur 1970-2000 A.D. (The Educator 1970-2000 A.D.), Le Droit, le 8 mars, 1971.

[155] Cf. Juan Tusquets, Teoria y practica de la pedagogia comparada (Theory and Practice of Comparative Education, in Spanish), Madrid: Ed. Magisterio Espanol, 1969, pp. 67-83, cf. p. 47.

[156] Daniel Bell, Can the Super-Powers Survive? Unstable America. Encounter, June, 1970, p. 22.

157Cf. Alvin C. Eurich (ed.), Campus 1980: The Shape of the Future in American Education. Preface by Arnold Toynbee. New York: Delacorte Press, 1960, Cf. F. M. Burnet, 2000 A.D.: A Biologist's Thoughts on the Next Forty Years. Melbourne: Oxford University Press, 1960, Harrison Brown et al, The Next Hundred Years, New York: The Viking Press, 1963.

[158] Cf. Andreas Flitner, et al., Wege zur paedagogischen Anthropologie (Ways to Educational Anthropology, in German). Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1967.

[159] Cf. Paul Tournier, The Whole Person in a Broken World. London: Collins, 1965.

[160] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Die paedagogische Sendung Europas (The Educational Mission of Europe, in German), International Review of Education, No. 3, 1948/1949. Id. La educacion europea en el cruce de la historia (European Education at the Turning Point of the History, in Spanish), Revista Interamericana de Educacion, enero-febrero 1961. Id. Modern Philosophies of Education-Filosofias modernas de educacion (In English and Spanish). Habana (Cuba): The Fifth Inter-american Congress of Education, 1954. Id. Die paedagogische Ausstrahlung Oesterreicher. (The Educational Radiation of Austria, in German). Wien und Muenchen: Oesterreichischer Bundesverlag fuer Unterricht, Wissenschaft und Kunst, 1961.

[161] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Development of the Whole Man Through Physical Education. Preface by the President of the International Olympic Committee, Avery Brundage. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press, 1969, pp. 321-372. Cf. Rabindranath Tagore, Towards Universal Man. New York: Asia Publishing House, 1961. Sri Aurobindo, Integral Education, Pondicherry: Sri Aurobindo International University Centre, 1952.

[162] Cf. Andre Siegfried, L'ame des peuples (The Soul of the Nations, in French). Paris: Hachette, 1950, G.-A. Heuse, La psychologie ethnique, Introduction a l'ethnopsychologie generale (The Ethnical Psychology: Introduction to General Ethopsychology, in French). Paris: J. Vrin, 1953. Salvador de Madariaga, Englishmen, Frenchmen, Spaniards. London: Oxford University Press, 1931. Alexandre Vexliard, L'education comparee et la notion de caractere national (Comparative Education and the Notion of the National Character, in French) Revue de Psychologie des Peuples. 2eme trimestre, 1965.

[163] Konstantin Dmitrievich Ushinsky, Cheloveek kak predmet vospitaniya (in Russian) St. Peterburg: Tip. M. Merkusheva, 1901. Id. Sobraniye sochinienij (Collected Works in Russian). Moskva-Leningrad: Akademiya Pedagogicheskikh Nauk RSFSR, 1958.

[164] Friedrich Froebel, Ausgewaehlte Schriften (Selected Works, in German). 2 vols. Godesberg: Kuepper, 1951.

[165] John Stewart Mills, On Liberty. World's Classics 170. London: Oxford University Press, 1912.

[166] Pierre Teilhard de Chardin, The Phenomenon of Man. New York: Harper & Row, 1959.

[167] Viktor E. Frankl, Man's Search for Meaning, Washington Square Press, 1963.

[168] Friedrich Schneider, Triebkraefte in der Paedagogik der Voelker (Driving Forces in the Education of Nations, in German). Salzburg: Otto Mueller Verlag, 1946.

[169] Robert Ulich, The Education of Nations. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1967.

[170] Mario Rossi, The Third World: The Unaligned Countries and the World Revolution. New York: Funk ' Wagnalls, 1963.

[171] Adam Curle, The Role of Education in Developing Societies, London: Oxford University Press, 1961.

[172] Robert W. Burns, Education and the Development of Nations. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1963.

[173] Robert L. Heilbroner, The Great Ascent: The Struggle for Economic Development in our Time. New York: Harper & Row, 1963.

[174] John XXIII, Pacem in Terris, Glen Rock, N.J.: Paulist Press, 1963.

[175] Cf. Walter Lippmann, Today and Tomorrow: Peace in the Lands. The Gazette, Montreal, April 2, 1963.

[176] See: A Paplauskas Ramunas, Dialogue entre Rome et Moscou (Dialogue between Rome and Moscow, in French). Preface du Cardinal Franz Koenig, President du Secretariat oecumenique pour les Non-Croyants. Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1966, pp. 160-163.

[177] Cf. Vladimir S. Solovyov, Tri rechi v pamyat Dostovevskovo (Three Speeches in Memory of Dostoyevsky, in Russian). Sobranie sochinenij, vol. III, St. Peterburg: Izdanie Tovarishchestva obshchestvennaya Pol'za, pp. 169-205, 1877-1881.

[178] Vladimir Szylkarski, Solowjew und Dostojewski (Solovyov and Dostoyevsky, in German). Bonn: Goetz Schwippert Verlag, 1948.

[179] Egbert Munzer, Solovyev: Prophet of Russian-Western Unity. London: Collis & Carter, 1956.

[180] Cf. Christopher Dawson, The Movement of World Revolution. New York: Sheed & Ward, 1959, C.L. Sulzberger, Unfinished Revolution. America and the Third World. New York: Atheneum, 1965. Abba Eban, New Nations and World Order. Santa Barbara: Center for the Democratic Institutions, 1964.

[181] A. Paplauskas Ramunas, Development of the Whole Man Through Physical Education. Preface by the President of the International Olympic Committee, Avery Brundage. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press, 1968, pp. 115-161, pp. 357-403.

[182] Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *Development of the Whole Man Through Physical Education. A Comparative Study*, Preface by the President of the International Olympic Committee Avery Brundage. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press, 1968, pp. 358-403.

[183] Cf. Gunnar Myrdal, *Challenge to Affluence*. New York: Pantheon Books, 1963, Id. *Beyond the Welfare State*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1960. Cf. Herbert Marcuse, *One-Dimensional Man*. Boston, Mass.: Beacon Press, 1964.

[184] Cf. Robert Theobald, *The Challenge of Abundance*. New York: Clarkson N. Potter, *The Guaranteed Income: Next Step in Economic Evolution?* Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co. 1966. Wilhelm Roepke, *A Humane Economy*. Chicago, Ill.: Henry Regnery Co., 1960. Jan Tinbergen, *International Economic Integration*. Amsterdam: Elsevier, 1954. Barbara Ward, *The Rich Nations and the Poor Nations*, New York: W.W. Norton, 1962.

[185] Edwin Arthur Butt, *The Teachings of the Compassionate Buddha*. A Mentor Book. New York: The New American Library of World Literature, 1955.

[186] Chang Chung-Yuan, *Creativity and Tsoism. A Study of Chinese Philosophy, Art and Poetry*, New York: The Julian Press, 1963.

[187] Daisetz T. Suzuki, *Zen and Japanese Culture*. New York: Pantheon Books, 1959.

[188] Alain Danielou, *Yoga: Method of Reintegration*. New Hyde Park, N.Y.: University Books, 1956.

[189] Mahatma K. Gandhi, *All Men are Brothers*, Paris: UNESCO, 1958.

[190] Mircea Eliade, *Yoga: Immortality and Freedom*, Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1970.

[191] Henrik Kraemer, *World Cultures and World Religions: The Coming Dialogue*, London: Lutterworth Press, 1960.

[192] Finn Laursen, *Federalism and World Order*. Copenhagen: World Federalist Youth, Gunnar Heckshher, *The Role of Small Nations - Today and Tomorrow*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1957.

[193] Paul Tillich, *Christianity and the Encounter of the World Religions*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1963.

[194] Minoo Masani, *Our Growing Human Family: From Tribe to World Federation*. Bombay, (India): Oxford University Press, 1950. George Geng, *Educating Mankind for One World*. New York: Committee for the Promotion of an International University in America, 1963. G. Pearson, *Towards One World*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1962.

[195] Leo Spitzer, *Classical and Christian Ideas of World Harmony*. Ed. by Anna G. Hatcher. Baltimore, Md.: Johns Hopkins Press, 1962. Gregory Baum, *That They May Be One*. Westminster, Md.: Newman Press, 1958. Robert McAfee Brown, *The Ecumenical Revolution*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1967. Augustin Bea, *Unity in Freedom: Reflections on the Human Family*. New York: Harper & Row, 1964.

A BIBLIOGRAPHICAL GUIDE

ACELF, *L'educateur et les droits de l'homme* (The Educator and the Human Rights, in French). Quebec: Editions de l'ACELF, 1968.

Agazzi, Aldo, *Problemi e maestri del pensiero e della pedagogia* (Problems and Masters of Thought and Pedagogy, in Italian). 3 vols. Brescia: La Scuola Editrice, 1954-1955.

Alba, Victor, *Los Subamericanos* (The Sub-Americans, in Spanish). Mexico City: Costa-Amic, 1964.

Algisi, Leone, *John the Twenty-Third*. Westminster, Md.: The Newman Press.

American Academy of Arts and Sciences, *Towards the Year 2000*. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1967.

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. *Teacher Education Looks to the Future*. Washington, D.C.: N.E.A., 1965.

______________ *Foundations for Excellence*. Washington, D.C.: N.E.A., 1962.

Anderson, C. Arnold and Bowman, M.J. (eds.), *Education and Economic Development*, Chicago, Ill.: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965.

Anderson, Robert H., *Teaching in a World of Change*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966.

Anweiler, Oskar, *Geschichte der Schule and Pedagogik in Russland* (History of School and Pedagogy in Russia, in German). Berlin: Ost-Europa-Institue and der Freien Universitaet, 1964.

Aquinas, Thomas, Saint, *On the Teacher*. Chicago, Ill.: Henry Regnery Co., 1959.

______________ *Treatise on Happiness*. Engelwood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964.

Arendt, Hannah, *On Revolution*. New York: The Viking Press, 1963.

______________ *The Human Condition: A Study of the Central Dilemmas Facing Modern Man*. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1958.

Aristotle, *The Nicomachean Ethics*. London: Oxford University Press, 1954.

Aron, Raymond, et al., *L'unification economique de l'Europe* (The Economic Unification of Europe, in French), Neuchatel: La Baconniere, 1957.

Ashby, Eric and Anderson, Mary, *Universities: British, Indian, African: A Study in the Ecology of Higher Education*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1966.

Ashton-Warner, Sylvia, *Teacher*. New York: Simon & Shuster, 1963.

Audet, Louis-Phillippe, *Educateurs: parents, maitres*. Quebec: Editions Action Sociale, 1963.

Augustine, Saint, *The Teacher*. Westminster, Md.: Newman Press, 1950.

______________ *City of God*. London: Oxford University Press, 1963.

Aurobindo, Sri, *The Ideal of Human Unity*. Pondicherry (India): Sri Aurobindo Ashram Press, 1950.

Austwick, H., *Teaching Machines and Programming*. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1964.

Avidor, Moshe, *Education in Israel*. Jerusalem: Youth and Hechalutz Department of Zionist Organization, 1957.

Avorn, Jerry L., et al., *Up Against the Ivy Wall: A History of the Columbia Crisis*. New York: Atheneum, 1969.

Baade, Fritz, *The Race to the Year 2000: Our Future: A Paradise or the Suicide of Mankind*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1962.

Bacon, Francis, *Advancement of Learning, and New Atlantis*. World Classics 93. London: Oxford University Press, 1938.

Bagby, Philip, *Culture and History: Prolegomena to the Comparative Study of Civilizations.* Berkeley, Calif.: University of California, 1960.

Balandier, Georges et al., *Le Tiers Monde: sous-developpement et developpement* (The Third World: Underdevelopment and Development, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1956.

Ballauf, Theodor, *Paedagogik: Eine Geschichte der Bildung and Erziehung* (Pedagogy: A History of Formation and Education, in German), vol. I. Freiburg, i. Br.: Verlag Karl Alber, 1969.

Barker, Ernst et al., *The European Inheritance*. 3 vols. Oxford: Calrendon Press, 1954.

Barnett, A., Doak, *Communist China and Asia.* New York: Harper & Row, 1960.

Barzun, Jacques, *Teacher in America.* An Anchor Book. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1954.

______________ *The American University: How It Runs, Where It is Going*. New York: Harper & Row, 1968.

Basham, A.L., *The Wonder That Was India*. New York: Grove Press, 1959.

Battistini, L.H., *Postwar Student Struggle in Japan*. Tokyo: Tuttle, 1956.

Baum, Gregory, *That They May Be One*. Westminster, Md.: Newman Press, 1958.

Baumier, Jean, Le poids du Tiers Monde: un milliard d'hommes (The Weight of the Third World: One Milliard People, in French). Paris: Arthaud, 1962.

Bea, Augustine, Unity in Freedom: Reflections on the Human Family. New York: Harper and Row, 1965.

Beek, M.A., and Weiland, J.S., Martin Buber: Personalist and Prophet. Glen Rock, N.J.: Paulist Press, 1967.

Behn, Siegfried, Philosophie der Werte als Grundwissenschaft der paedagogischen Zieltheorie (Philosophy of Values as the Main Science of the Theory of Educational Aims in German). Muenchen: Verlag Josef Koesel und Friedrich Pustet, 1930.

Bell, Daniel, The Reforming of General Education. New York: Columbia University Press, 1966.

Bell, Norman T., et al., Introduction to College Life: Meanings, Values and Committment. 2nd edition. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1966.

Beniskos, Jean-Marie, The Person Teacher, The Educational Courier, December-January, 1971.

Benjamin, H., ed., Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education. New York: Harper & Row, 1960.

Bentwich, Joseph S., Education in Israel, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1965.

Bereday, George, Comparative Method in Education. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964.

Bergen, Jane, et al., Robots in the Classroom. New York: Exposition Press, 1966.

Berger, Gaston, L'homme et son education (Man and His Education, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1962.

Bergson, Henri, The Two Sources of Morality and Religion. An Anchor Book, Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., 1954.

Bernal, John Desmond, World Without War. New York: Monthly Review Press, 1959.

Bertin, Leonard, Target 2067: Canada's Second Century. Toronto: Macmillan, 1968.

Berton, Pierre, The Smug Minority. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1968.

Bertram, Gordon, The Contribution of Education to Economic Growth. Staff Study no. 12. Economic Council of Canada. Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1966.

Besnard, A.M., Visage spirituel des temps nouveaux (The Spiritual Face of the New Times, in French). Paris: Les Editions du Cerf, 1965.

Bestor, Arthur E., Educational Wastelands. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Press, 1953.

Bhave, Vinoba, La revolution de la non-violence (The Non-Violent Revolution, in French). Paris: Albin Michel, 1958.

Biddle, B.J., and Ellens, W.J., eds., Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964.

Bigelow, K.W., Teachers of Our Times. Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education. Washington, D.C.: ACE, 1944.

Bissell, Claude T., The Strength of the University. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1968.

Bissonnier, Henri, Pedagogie de resurrection (The Pedagogy of Resurrection, in French). Paris: Fleurus, 1959.

Bizier, J., L'education chretienne et le Rapport Parent (Christian Education and the Parent Report, in French). Montreal: Fides, 1969.

Blackwell, Thomas E., College and University Administration. New York: The Library of Education, Center for Applied Research in Education.

______________ College Law: A Guide for Administrators, Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1961.

Blaug, M. ed., Economics of Education. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1970.

Bloch, M., Philosophie de l'education nouvelle (Philosophy of the New Education, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1954.

Bloom, Benjamin and Kraftwohl, D.R., Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, 2 bks. New York: David McKay Co., 1956-1964.

Blum, Albert A., ed., Teacher Unions and Associations: A Comparative Study. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois Press, 1969.

Bokelmann, Hans, Masstaebe paedagogischen Handelns (Measures of Educational Doing, in German). Wuerzburg: Wekbund-Verlag, 1965.

Bollonow, Otto, et al., Der Mensch in Theologie und Paedagogik (Man in Theology and Pedagogy in German). Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1957.

Borrowman, M.L., ed., Teacher Education in America. New York: Teachers College Columbia University, 1965.

Boschetti-Alberti, Marie, L'ecole sereine (The Serene School, in French). Neuchatel: Delachaux & Niestle, 1952.

Bouchet, Henri, L'individualisation de l'enseignement (The Individualization of Teaching in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1948.

Boulding, Kenneth E., Meaning of the 20th Century. New York: Harper & Row, 1964.

Bovet, P., Le genie de Baden-Powell (The Genius of Baden-Powell, in French). Neuchatel: Forum, 1922.

Bowen, James. Soviet Education: Anton Makarenko and the Years of Experiment. Madison, Wisc. The University of Wisconsin Press, 1962.

Bowie, Walter R., The Compassionate Christ, Nashville, Tenn.: Abington Press, 1955.

Bowles, Frank, Access to Higher Education. New York:Columbia University Press, 1963.

Bradby, Edward, The University Outside Europe. Essays on the Development of University Institutions in Fourteen Countries. New York: Oxford University Press, 1939.

Brameld, Theodore, B.H., Education for the Emerging Age. New York: Harper & Row, 1961.

Brembeck, Cole S., Social Foundations of Education: A Cross-Cultural Approach. New York: John Wiley, 1966.

Brewster, Kingman, et al., Educating for the Twenty-First Century. Urbana, Ill. University of Illinois Press, 1969.

Brezinka, Wolfgang, Erziehung als Lebenshilfe (Education as the Assistance to Live, in German). Wien: Oesterreichischer Bundesverlag, 1963.

Brickman, William W., and Lehrer, Stanley, eds., Conflict and Change on the Campus: The Response to Student Hyperactivism. New York: School and Society Books, 1970.

Bronfenbrenner, Urie, Two Worlds of Childhood: U.S. and U.S.S.R. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1970.

Brown, Harrison, Challenge to Man's Future. A Compass Book. New York: The Viking Press, 1956.

______________ et al., Next Hundred Years. A Compass Book. New York: The Viking Press, 1963.

Bruner, Jerome S., The Process of Education. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1966.

Brzezinski, Zbigniew K., The Soviet Block: Unity and Conflict. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960.

Buber, Martin, I and Thou. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1958.

Buchanan, James M., and Devletoglou, Nicos E., Academia in Anarchy. New York: Basic Books, 1970.

Buckmaster, H., Paul: A Man Who Changed the World. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965.

Bull, Richard E., Summerhill USA. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1971.

Burns, Donald G., African Education. New York: Oxford University Press, 1965.

Burns, Robert W., Education and the Development of Nations. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1963.

Buss, A.H., Psychology of Aggression. New York: John Wiley, 1961.

Buss, Claude A., Asia in the Modern World. New York: Macmillan, 1964.

______________ Southeast Asia and the World Today. Anvil Book. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand, 1958.

Butts, R. Freeman, Cultural History of Western Education. 2nd edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1955.

Butts, R. Freeman & Cremin, Lawrence A., *History of Education in American Culture*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1953.

Calder, Nigel, ed., *The World in 1984*. 2 vols. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1964.

Califano, Joseph A., *Student Revolution: A Global Confrontation*. New York: W.W. Norton & Co., 1970.

Calo, Giovanni, *Comenio nel tempo suo e nel tempo nostro* (Comenius in His Time and in Our Time, in Italian). Roma: Academia Nazionale dei Lincei, 1957.

Camus, Albert, *L'homme revolte* (Man in Revolt, in French). Paris: Gallimard, 1951.

Caplow, Theodore, and McGee, Reece J., *The Academic Marketplace*. New York: Basic Books, 1958.

Carmichael, Oliver C., *Universities: Commonwealth and American*. New York: Harper & Row, 1959.

Carriere, Gaston, *Un grand educateur*. Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1958.

Cartter, Allan M., *An Assessment of Quality in Graduate Education*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1966.

Castle, E.B., *The Teacher*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1970.

Chagnon, Maurice, *Orientation professionnelle et orientation scolaire* (Professional Guidance and School Guidance, in French), Revue de l'Universite d'Ottawa, octobre-decembre, 1945.

Chandler, B.J., *Education and the Teacher*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1960.

Cento, F., *Un educateur de genie: Dante*. Paris: Office General du Livre, 1951.

Charrier, Ch., *Pedagogie vecue*. (Education Lived, in French). Paris: Nathan, 1948.

Chateau, Jean-Yves, *La culture generale*. (The General Culture, in French). Paris: J. Vrin, 1965.

Chaube, S.P., *Comparative Education*. 2nd edition. Agra-3: Ram Prasad & Sons, 1969.

Chiu-Sam Tsang, *Society, Schools and Progress in China*. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1968.

Chou Tsetung, *The May Fourth Movement: Intellectual Revolution in Modern China*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960.

Cirigliano, Gustavo, F.J., *La pedagogia comparativa comparada consigo misma*, (Comparative Education Compared with Itself, in Spanish), *Perspectivas Pedagogicas*, num. 18, 1966.

Clubb, O. Edmund, *Twentieth Century China*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1964.

Cole, G.D.H., *Europe, Russia and the Future*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1942.

Collingwood, Robin George, *The New Leviathan, or Man, Society and Barbarism*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1942.

Conant, James B., *The Education of American Teachers*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963.

Coombe, Philip H., *The World Educational Crisis*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1968.

Correll, Werner, *Programmiertes Lernen und Schoenferisches Denken* (Programmed Learning and Creative Thinking, in German). 4. Auflage. Muenchen: Ernst Reinhardt Verlag, 1969.

Cotti, Colette, *La femme au seuil de l;an 2000* (The Women on the Threshold of the Year 2000, in French). Paris-Tournai: Casterman, 1968.

Cottone, Carmelo, *L'educatore moderno* (The Modern Educator, in Italian). Roma: Angelo Signorelli, 1955.

Coulon, Marion, *La jeunesse a la derive* (The Youth Adrift, in French). 6 vols. Mons (Religique): Editions Silene, 1945-1948.

Counts, George S., *The Challenge of Soviet Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957.

Cousinet, R., *La formation de l'educateur* (The Education of the Educator, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1952.

Cramer, J.F., and Browne, G.S., *Contemporary Education: A Comparative Study of National Systems*. 2nd edition. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1965.

Cremin, Lawrence A., *The Transformation of the School*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1961.

Cross, Louis, *L'explosion scclaire* (The School Explosion, in French). Paris: Sevpen, 1962.

Croteau, Jacques, *Les fondements thomistes du personnalisme de Maritain*. (The Thomistic Foundations of Maritain's Personalism, in French). Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1955.

Crouzet, Maurice, *L'epoque contemporaine. A la recherche d'une civilisation nouvelle* (Contemporary Epoch: Quest for a New Civilization, in French) Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1957.

Curle, Adam, *The Role of Education in Developing Societies*. London: Oxford University Press, 1961.

Curtis, M.H., *Oxford and Cambridge in Transition*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1959.

Dahlke, H. Otto, *Values in Culture and Classroom: A Study in the Sociology of the School*. New York, Harper and Row, 1968.

Darton, Jacques, *Le defi europeen* (The European Challenge, in French). Paris: Les Editions Sociales Francaises, 1968.

Daumas, Maurice, *A History of Technology and Invention: Progress Through the Ages*. 2 vols. New York: Crown Publishers, 1970.

Davidson, Basil, *The African Genius.* Boston, Mass.: The Monthly Press, 1970.

Dawson, Christopher, *The Crisis of Western Education*. New York: Sheed & Ward, 1961.

Debesse, Maurice, *La geographie de l'education nouvelle*. *Bulletin de psychologie*, le 16 avril 1957.

Decaunes, L., *Les reformes et projets de reformes de l'enseignement francais de la Revolution a nos jours* (1789-1960). Paris: I.N.P., 1962.

Decoufle, A., *Sociologie des revolutions*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1968.

Decroly, Ovide, *Vers l'ecole renovee*. Paris: Nathan, 1921.

Denison, Edward F., The Sources of Economic Growth in the United States and the Alternatives Before Us. Washington, D.C.: Committee for Economic Development, 1962.

Dent, H.C., *Universities in Transition*. London: Cohen and West, 1961.

Derbolav, Josef, *Die gegenwaertige Situation des Wissens von der Erziehung*. (The Present Situation of Knowledge Concerning Education, in German). Bonn: H. Bouvier Und Co. Verlag, 1956.

Desjariais, Lionel, *Les recherches pedagogiques a l'intention des Franco-Ontariens*, *Le Droit*, le 22 decembre 1970.

_______________, *Some Thoughts Concerning Contemporary Education*, Report: Educational Leadership Conference, December 4-6, 1970. Ottawa: Ottawa School Board of Education, 1971.

Desmarais, Marie, *L'amour a l'age atomique* (The Love in the Atomic Age, in French). Montreal Editions du Levrier, 1957.

Deutsch, Karl W., et al., *France, Germany and the Western Alliance*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1966.

Deutscher, Isaac, *The Great Contest: Russia and the West*. London: Oxford University Press, 1960.

_______________, *Unfinished Revolution: Russia 1917-1967.* London: Oxford University Press, 1967.

Dewart, Leslie, *Christianity and Revolution: The Lesson of Cuba*. New York: Herder & Herder, 1963, 2nd edition.

Dewey, John, *School and Society*. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1915.

Diamond, Malcolm L., *Martin Buber: Jewish Existentialist*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1960.

Dielininkaitis, Pr., *La liberte scolaire et l'Etat* (The School Freedom and the State, in French). Paris: F. Alcan, 1933.

Diem, Carl, Weltgeschichte des Sports und der Leibeserziehung (World History of Sport and Physical Education, in German). Stuttgart: Cotta-Verlag, 1960.

Diem, Liselott, ed., Pierre de Coubertin: L'idee olympique. (Pierre de Coubertin: The Olympic Idea, in French). Koeln: Carl-Diem-Institut, 1966.

Dienelt, Karl, Von Freud zu Frankl (From Freud to Frankl). Wien: Oesterreichischer Bundesverlag, 1967.

Dixon, Willis, Society, Schools and Progress in Scandinavia. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1965.

Dobinson, C.H., Ed., Education in a Changing World. London: Harrap, 1963.

Dottrens, Robert, Vers une pedagogie prospective (Towards a Prospective Pedagogy, in French). Neuchatel-Paris: Delachaux & Niestle, 1961.

Draper, James A., Second National Workshop on Community Development. Toronto: OISE, 1969.

Drechsler, Julius, Des Wirklichkeitsproblem in der Erziehungswissenschaft (The Problem of Reality in the Educational Science, in German). 2. Auflage. Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1962.

Dreeben, Robert, The Nature of Teaching: Schools and the Work of Teachers. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1970.

Dutt, V.P., China and the World. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1966.

______________, ed., East Asia: China, Korea, Japan. New York: Oxford University Press, 1958.

Eayrs, James, The Art of the Possible. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1961.

Eckstein, Max A., and Nosh, Harold, eds., Scientific Investigation in Comparative Education. New York: Macmillan , 1969.

Edwards, Newton, and Richey, Herman G., The School in the American Social Order. 2nd edition. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1963.

Eggertsen, Claude A., The United States and International Education. The Sixty-eight Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago, Ill.: The NSSE, 1969, pp. 318-343.

Ellul, Jacques, The Technological Society. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1964.

Espe, H., Vergelichende Paedagogik (Comparative Education, in German). Berlin: Orbis Verlag, 1956.

Farah, E., Le courant des reformes scolaires apres la deuxieme guerre mondiale. (The Current of the Educational Reforms After the Second World War, in French). Geneve: Impr. Kundig, 1964.

Farine, Avigdor, Le bilinguisme au Cameroun (Bilinguism in Cameroon, in French). Canadian Journal of African Studies, Spring 1968.

Faure, Pierre, Au siecle de l'enfant (In the Century of the Child, in French). Paris: Maison Mame, 1958.

Faust, Clarence, H., and Feingold, Jessica, Approaches to Education for Character: Strategies for Change in Higher Education. New York: Columbia University Press, 1970.

Federation des Colleges Classiques, Notre reforme scolaire (Our School Reform, in French). Montreal: Centre de Psychologie et de Pedagogie, 1962.

Ferkiss, Victor G., Technological Man: Myth and Reality. New York: George Braziller, 1969.

Ferriere, Adolphe, L'ecole active a travers l'Europe (The Active School Across Europe,in French). Paris: V. Michon, 1948.

______________, Transformons l'ecole (Let's Transform the School, in French). Geneve: Bureau International des Ecoles Nouvelles, 1920.

Fernig, L., The Global Approach to Comparative Education, International Review of Education, no. 3, 1959.

First World Congress of Pythagorean Organizations, Proceedings of the Congress, edited by Prof. George Sakellariou. Athens: Publishing House of French Institute of Athens, 1957.

Fischer, Joseph, ed., The Social Sciences and the Comparative Study of Educational Systems. Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1970.

Fleming, W.G., Research Into the Development of Academic Talent. Toronto: Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, 1959.

Fletcher, Basil, A Philosophy for the Teacher: A Study of the Child and Human Knowledge. London: Oxford University Press, 1961.

Flitner, Andreas, et al., Wege zur paedagogischen Anthropologie (Ways to Educational Anthropology, in German). Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1967.

Flower, George, How Big is Too Big. Toronto, Ont.: W.J. Gage, 1964.

Foerster, Friedrich Wilhelm, Hauptaufgaben der Erziehung (The Main Objectives of Education, in German). Freiburg i. Br.: Herder, 1959.

______________, Erlebte Weltgeschichte (The World History I Lived, in German). Nuernberg: Glock und Lutz, 1953.

Foley, John E., ed., Human History: A Race Between Education and Catastrophe. Pittsburgh, Pa.: Duquesne University Press.

Foote, Caleb, et al., The Culture of the University: Governance and Education. San Francisco, Calif.: Jassy-Bass, 1968.

Foshay, Arthur W., ed., The Professional as Educator. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1970.

Foster, Philip, Education and Social Change in Ghana. Chicago, Ill.,: University of Chicago Press, 1968.

Fourastie, Jean, Le grand espoir du XXe siecle (The Great Hope ofthe 20th Century, in French), Paris: Gallimard, 1963.

Frank, H., Kybernetische Grundlagen der Paedagogik (The Cybernetic Foundations of Education, in German). Baden-Baden: Agis, 1962.

Frank, Lawrence, School as an Agent for Cultural Renewal. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959.

Frankl, Viktor E., Man's Search for Meaning. New York: Washington Square Press, 1963.

______________, Homo patiens (The Suffering Man, in German). Wien: Verlag Franz Deuticke, 1949.

Fraser, Stewart, Chinese Communist Education. Nashville, Tenn.: Vanderbilt University Press, 1965.

______________, International Education: Understandings and Misunderstandings. Nashville, Tenn.: Peabody International Center, 1969.

Freeman, Lucy. The Cry for Love: Understanding and Overcoming Depression. New York: Macmillan, 1969.

Frei, Montalta, Eduardo, La verdad tiene au hora (The Truth Has Its Hour, in Spanish). Santiago de Chile: Editorial del Pacifico, 1955.

Freinet, C., L'ecole moderne francaise (The Modern French School, in French). 5e edition. Montmorillon: Rossignol, 1957.

Friedenberg, Edgar K., The Vanishing Adolescent. Boston: The Beacon Press, 1959.

Friedmann, Georges, Problemes humains du machinisme industriel (The Human Problems of Industrial Mechanization, in French). Paris: Gallimard, 1946.

______________, Ou va le travail humain? (Whither the Human Work?). Paris: Gallimard, 1963.

Froebel, Friedrich, Ausgewaehlte Schriften (Selected Works, in German). 2 vols. Godesberg: Kuepper, 1951.

Froese, Leonard, Ideengeschichtliche Triebkraefte der russivschen und sowjetischen Paedagogik (The Driving Forces of Russian and Soviet Education: Ideas in Their Evolution, in German). Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1956.

Fuller, R.B., Education Automation: Freeing the Scholar to Return to His Studies. Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois University Press, 1962.

Gagne, Jacques (Assistant Director of the Comparative Education Centre, University of Ottawa), La motivation: realisation de soi dans la mutualite (The Motivation: Realisation of the Self in Mutuality, in French). Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1969.

Galarneau, Claude et Lavoie, Elzear, France et Canada francais du XVIe au XXe siecle (France and French Canada from the 16th to 20th Century, in French) Quebec: Les Presses de l'Universite Laval, 1967.

Galbraith, John Kenneth, The New Industrial State. Boston, Mass.: Houghton-Mifflin, 1967.

Garaudy-Metz-Rahner, Der Dialog (The Dialogue, in German). Hamburg: Rowohlt Verlag, 1966.

Gardner, John W., Excellence: Can we Be Equal and Excellent Too? New York: Harper & Row, 1961.

Garcia, Hoz, Victor, Principios de pedagogia sistematica (Principles of Systematic Pedagogy, in Spanish). Madrid: Rialp, 1960.

Geng, George, Educating Mankind for One World. New York: Committee for the Promotion of an International University, 1963.

Gillett, Margaret, A History of Education. New York-Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966.

Godbout, Arthur, (Secretary General of the Comparative Education Centre of the University of Ottawa and of the World Council of Comparative Education), L'origine des ecoles francaises dans l'Ontario (The Origin of the French Schools in Ontario, in French). Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press, 1971.

Goethe, Johann Wolfgang, Human Creativeness, and Other Essays. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia Press, 1950.

_______________, Faust. Two parts. London: Oxford University Press, 1932.

Goodban, G.A., et al., China in the World History. 4 vols. Hong Kong: Kuala Lumpur, 1958-1961.

Goodman, W.L., A.S. Makarenko, Russian Teacher. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1949.

Gould, G., and Yoakman, G.A., The Teacher and His Work. New York: The Ronald Press, 1954.

Grande, L.M., Twelve Virtues of a Good Teacher. New York: Sneed & Ward, 1962.

Grandpre, Marcel de, L'educateur et la formation religieuse des adolescents. (The Educator and the Religious Formation of Adolescents, in French). Quebec: Les Presses de l'Universite Laval, 1958.

Grant, Nigel, Schule und Erziehung in der Sowjetunion (School and Education in the Soviet Union, in German). Bern: Schweizerisches Ost-Institut, 1966.

The Great Socialist Cultural Revolution in China. 4 vols. Peking: Foreign Language Press, 1966.

Greenberger, Martin, ed., The Computers and the World of the Future. Cambridge, Mass.: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1962.

Greenfield, T.B., et al., Developing School System: Planning, Organization and Personnel. Toronto: OISE, 1969.

Gross, Ronald, ed., The Teacher and the Taught: Education in Theory and Practice from Plato to James B. Conant. New York: Dell, 1963.

Grossin, W., L'automation. Des calculateurs electroniques aux usines sans ouvriers. (Automation: Electronic Computers in Factories Without Workers) Monte Carlo: Editions du Cap, 1960.

Grousset, Rene, Rise and Splendor of the Chinese Empire. Los Angeles, Calif.: University of Southern California Press, 1953.

_______________, History of Asia, New York: Walker & Co., 1964.

_______________, Les civilisations de l'Orient (Civilizations of the Orient, in French

Guardini, Romano, Das Ende der Neuzeit (The End of the Modern Times, in German). 9. Auflage. Wuerzburg: Werk-bund Verlag, 1965.

Guillain, Robert, The Japanese Challenge: The Race to the Year 2000. Philadelphia, Pa.: J.B. Lippincott, 1970.

Guindon, Roger, Humanize-Homogenize. Ottawa University Alumni News, December, 1965.

_______________, Beatitudes et theologie morale chez Saint Thomas d'Aquin (Beatitudes and Moral Theology in the Work of St. Thomas Aquinas, in French). Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1956.

Gulick, Sidney Lewis, The East and West: A Study of Their Psyche and Cultural Characteristics. Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1965.

Haecker, Theodor, Was ist der Mensch? (What is a Man?, in German). Muenchen: Koesel Verlag, 1965.

Halacy, D.S., Jr., Bionics: Science of Living Machines. New York: Holiday House, 1965.

Halls, W.D., Society, Schools and Progress in France. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1965.

Halpin, Andrew, Theory and Research in Administration. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966.

_______________, Administrative Theory in Education. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1967.

Halsey, A.H., et al., Education, Economy and Society. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961.

Hans, N., Comparative Education: A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1961.

Hanson, John W., and Brembeck, Cole S., eds., Education and the Development of Nations. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1966.

Hawkes, Jacquetta, History of Mankind. 2 vols. New York: Harper & Row, 1962-1965.

Hayes, Carlton, J.H., The Idea of Nationalism: The First Era of Global History. New York: Harper & Row, 1962.

Heer, Friedrich, The Intellectual History of Europe. New York: World Publishing Co., 1966.

Hellpach, W., Einfuehrung in die Voelkerpsychologie (Introduction to the Psychology of Nations, in German). Stuttgart: Ferdinand Enke Verlag, 1954.

Henderson, James L., Education for World Understanding. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1968.

Hesburgh, Theodore M., Patterns for Educational Growth. Notre Dame, Ind.: University of Notré Dame Press, 1958.

Hessen, Sergius, The Antinomies of Education and Its Unity (in Czech), 1938.

Hilker, Franz, Vergleichende Paedagogik (Comparative Education, in German). Muenchen: Max Hueber, 1962.

Hofstadter, Richard, and Metzger, W.P., The Development of Academic Freedom in the United States. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955.

Holmes, Brian, Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1965.

Hook, Sidney, Academic Freedom and Academic Anarchy. New York: Cowles Book Co., 1970.

Horowitz, David, Neo-Imperialism: Why the Soviets Intervened. Our Generation, vol. VI, No. 3, December-January 1969.

Howes, Virgil M., Individualization of Instruction: A Teaching Strategy. Encino, Calif.; International Center for Educational Development, 1970.

Hu Shih, The Chinese Renaissance. 2nd edition. New York: Paragon Books, 1963.

Huerliman, Martin, Eternal Greece. New York: The Viking Press, 1953.

Hugo, Grant, Britain in Tomorrow's World. New York: Columbia University Press, 1969.

Huguenin, E. Education et culture d'apres Kerschensteiner (Education and Culture According to Kerschensteiner, in French). Paris: Ernest Flammarion, 1963.

Hunnicut, Clarence W., Education 2000 A.D., Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1956.

Husen, Forsten, and Boalt, Gunnar, Bildungsforschung und Schulreform in Schweden, (Educational Research and School Reform in Sweden, in German). Stuttgart: Ernst Klett, 1968.

Hylla, E., und Wrinkle, W.L., Die Schulen in Westeuropa (The Schools in Western Europe, in German). Christian Verlag, 1953.

Ignacio, de Loyola, Obras (Works, in Spanish). Madrid: Biblioteca de Autores Cristianos, 1947.

Ingram, J., The World's My University. London: George G. Harrap, 1965.

Jackson, R.W.B., Educational Research in Today and Tomorrow. Toronto: W.J. Gage, 1961.

James, William, Talks to Teachers on Psychology and to Students on Some of Life's Ideals. New York: W.W. Norton, 1958.

Jean XXIII, Pacem in Terris. Glen Rock, N.J.: The Paulist Press.

Jobert, Ambroise, Le commission d'education nationale en Pologne, 1773-1794. (The National Educational Commission in Poland, 1773-1794, in French). Paris: Societe d'Education "Les Belles Lettres", 1941.

Johnson, F. Ernest, Vital Encounter: Christianity and Communism. Nashville, Tenn.: Abington Press, 1962.

Jones, Howard Mumford, Education and the World Tragedy. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1946.

Julien, Claude, Le nouveau monde (The New World, in French). 2 vols. Paris: Julliard, 1960.

______________, Canada: Europe's Last Chance. Toronto, Ont.: Macmillan, 1968.

______________, La revolution cubaine (The Cuban Revolution, in French). Paris: Julliard, 1961.

Jullien de Paris, Marc-Antoine, Esquisse et vues preliminaires d'un ouvrage sur l'education comparee (Preliminary Outline and Views of a Work on Comparative Education, in French). Geneve: Bureau International d'education, 1962.

Kabir, Humayun, Education in New India. London: Allan & Unwin, 1961.

Kairov, I.A., Dieiideologischen Grundlagen der Sowjetpaedagogik (The Ideological Foundations of Soviet Education, in German). Berlin-Leipzig, 1949.

Kandel, I.L., The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1955.

Kaplan, Mordecai M., Judaism as a Civilization. New York: Jewish Reconstructionist Press, 1957.

Kattackal, Joseph (Research Assistant, The Comparative Education Centre of the University of Ottawa), Mahatma Gandhi: The Man and His Message, Bulletin of the Canadian Commission for UNESCO, March, 1969.

Katz, Joseph, Canadian Education Today, Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1956.

______________, Society, Schools and Progress in Canada. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1969.

Kaysen, Carl, The Higher Learning, the Universities and the Public. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1969.

Kazamias, Andreas, and Massialas, B., Tradition and Change in Education. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.

Keppel, Francis, The Necessary Revolution in American Education. New York: Harper & Row, 1966.

Kernig, Claus D. (Hrsg.), Sowjetsystem urd demokratische Gesellschaft. Eine vergleichende Enzyklopaedie (Soviet System and Democratic Society: A Comparative Encyclopedia). 5 vols. Freiburg-Basel-Wien: Herder, 1966-1968.

Kerr, Anthony J., Youth of Europe. Chester Springs, Pa.: Dufour Editions, 1964.

______________, Universities of Europe. Westminster, Md.: Cantergury Press, 1962.

Kerschensteiner, Georg, Die Seele des Erziehers (The Soul of the Educator, in German). Muenchen: R. Oldenbourg, 1954.

Kevane, Eugene, Augustine the Educator. Westminster, Md.: Newman Press, 1964.

Kidd, Charles, American Universities and Federal Research. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959.

Kidd, J. Roby, et al., Comparative Studies in Adult Education. Toronto: OISE, 1968.

______________, Implications of Continuous Learning. Toronto: W.J. Gage, 1966.

Kilpatrick, W.H., et al., The Teacher and Society. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1937.

King, Edmund J., Education and Social Change. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1966.

Kleinberger, Aharon, F., Society, Schools and Progress in Israel. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1969.

Koenig, Franz, Christus und die Religionen der Erde: Handbuch der Religionsgeschichte Christ and the Religions of the Earth: A Handbook of the History of Religion, in German). 3 vols. Wien: Verlag Herder, 1951.

Koerner, James D., The Miseducation of American Teachers. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1963.

Kohl, Herbert R., The Open Classroom. New York: Random House, 1970.

Kolasky, John, Education in Soviet Ukraine. Toronto: Peter Martin, 1968.

Komensky-Comenius, Jan Amos, Opera Didactica omnia. Amsterdam: C. Cunradus and G.A. Roy, 1657.

Konarski, Stanislaw, Pisma pedagogiczne (Educational Works, in Polish). Wroclaw-Krakow: Zaklad Narodowy im. Ossolinskich, Wydawnictwo Polskiej, Vakademii Nauk, 1959.

Kong, Shiu L. Humanistic Psychology and Personalized Teaching. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970.

Korolev, F.F. Ocherki po istorii sovetskoi sholy i pedagogiki (An Outline of the History of Soviet School and Pedagogy, in Russian). Moskva: Izdatel'stvo Akademii Pedagogicheskikh Nauk RSFSR, 1958.

Kroh, Oswald, Revision der Erziehung (Revision of Education, in German). Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1957.

Krupskaya, N.K., Izbrannye pedagogicheskie proizvedeniya (Selected Educational Writings, in Russian). Moskva: Izdatel'stvo Akademii Pedagogicheskikh Nauk RSFSR, 1955.

Labouret, Henri, Colonisation, colonialisme, decolonisation (Colonization, Colonialism, Decolonization, in French). Paris: Larose, 1952.

Laing, R.D. The Divided Self. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1970.

_______________, Self and Others. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1970.

Larus, Joel, ed., Comparative World Politics. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing, 1964.

Lavallee, Marcel, La batterie factorielle predictive - La BFP6 (The Predictive Factorial Battery, the BFP6, in French). Montreal: Education Nouvelle, 1970.

Lawson, Robert F., Contrasting Conceptions of Further Education in North American and Some West-European Countries. International Review of Education, vol. XIV, no. 1 (n.d.).

Lednicki, Waclaw, Christ et revolution dans la poesie russe et polonaise (Christ and Revolution in Russian and Polish Poetry, in French). Paris: Melanges Jules Legras, 1939.

_______________, ed., Adam Mickiewicz in World Literature. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1956.

Lee, Cyrus, Mo Tzu: The Great Educator and His Educational Systems. Taipei: University Monthly, 1969.

Legare, Henri, The Primary End of Education, The Second Canadian Conference on Education, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1962.

Legum, Colin, ed., Africa: A Handbook to the Continent. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1962.

Lehrer, Stanley, ed., Leaders, Teachers and Learners in Academe: Partners in the Educational Process, New York: School and Society Books, 1970.

Lenin, Vladimir I., Tolstoy kak zerkalo russkoy revoliutsii (Tolstoy as a Mirror of Russian Revolution, in Russian), sochineniya (Works in Russian) 3-e izd., t. XII, str. 331-335.

_______________ The Right of Nations to Self-determination. New York: International Publishers.

_______________ Last Testament, December 21, 1922.

Lentin, Albert-Paul, La lutte tricontinentale (The Tricontinental Battle, in French), La Havane-Paris: Francois Maspero, 1966.

Lerner, Max, The Age of Overkill. New York: Simon & Shuster, 1962.

Levenson, Joseph F., Confucian China and Its Modern Fate. 3 vols. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1958-1965.

Lilge, Frederic, Anton Makarenko: An Analysis of His Educational Ideas in the Context of Soviet Society. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California Press, 1958.

Lindaman, Edward B., Space: A New Direction of Mankind. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

Lucas, Eric, What Is a Man? London: Oxford University Press, 1961.

Marcenis, Jose, El hombre: un enigma? (Man: An Enigma?, in Spanish). Buenos Aires: Editorial Fides Libreria, 1954.

Macklman, A.H., Comparative Education Systems. Washington, D.C.: The Washington Center for Applied Research in Education, 1963.

MacNeil, Claude D. (Acting Assistant Director of the Comparative Education Centre of the University of Ottawa), The Philosophy of Gabriel Marcel and Emphasis in Education. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. University of Ottawa, 1969.

Madariaga, Salvador de, Englishmen, Frenchmen, Spaniards. London: Oxford University Press, 1931.

Magnino, Leo, La scuola nei paesi di lingua spagnola e di lingua portughese (The School in the Spanish-Speaking and Portugese-Speaking Countries, in Italian). Roma: Biblioteca dell'Educatore, 1950.

Magnuson, Roger, Education in the Province of Quebec. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education & Welfare, 1969.

Mahe, Andre, L'ecole heureuse (The Happy School, in French). Paris: Editions Denvel, 1964.

Maimonides, Moses, The Guide for the Perplexed. 3rd edition. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1956.

Makarenko, A.S., Sochineniya (Collected Works, in Russian). 7 vols. Moskva: Izdatel'stvo Akademii Pedagogicheskikh Nauk RSFSR, 1957.

Makauskas-Ramunas, Marija, Pestalozzi as Social Educator (in Lithuanian). Nuertingen: Tremtiniu Mokykla, 1947.

Malik, Charles (Former President of the General Assembly of the United Nations), Christ and Crisis. Grand Rapids, Mich.: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co., 1962.

Malkova, Zoya, The American Comprehensive School, International Review of Education, no. 3, 1965.

Mallinson, Vernon, An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education. London: William Heinemann, 1957.

Mao Tse-Tung, Selected Works. 4 vols. Peking: Foreign Language Press.

Mao Tse-Tung's Quotations: The Red Guard's Handbook. published by Peabody International Center, Nashville, Tenn.: PIC, 1967.

Marcel, Gabriel, Le declin de la sagesse (The Decline of Wisdom, in French). Paris: Plon, 1954.

Marcuse, Herbert, One Dimensional Man. Boston, Mass.: The Beacon Press, 1964.

_______________, Soviet Marxism. New York: Columbia University Press, 1958.

_______________, Eros and Civilization. Boston, Mass.: The Beacon Press, 1966.

_______________, La fin de l'Utopie (The End of Etopia, in French). Paris: Editions du Seuil, 1968.

Maritain, Jacques, Integral Humanism. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1969.

_______________, Distinguish to Unite, or: The Degrees of Knowledge. London: Bles, 1959.

_______________, Man and the State. A Phoenix Book. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1951.

_______________, Reflections on America. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1958.

Martin, Bernard, ed., Great Twentieth Century Jewish Philosophers: Shestov, Rosenzweig, Buber. Hickville, N.Y.: The Regina Press, 1970.

Martin, James, and Norman, Adrian R.D., The Computerized Society. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Marx, Karl, and Engels, Friedrich, Communist Manifesto. New York: Washington Square Press, 1965.

Massialas, Byron, G., Education and the Political System. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

Matthews, Roderic, and Akrawi, Matta, Education in the Arab Countries of the Near East. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1949.

Mehl, Roger, Images de l'homme: l'homme marxiste, l'homme existentialiste, l'homme chretien (Images of Man: Marxist Man, Existentialist Man, Christian Man, in French). Paris: Labor et Fides, 1953.

Meister, Richard, Beitraege zur Theorie der Erziehung (Contributions to the Theory of Education, in German). Wien: A. Sexl, 1947.

Melman, Seymour, Our Depleted Society. New York: Dell, 1965.

Mende, Tibor, *World Power in the Balance*. New York: Noonday Press, 1953.

Menshutkin, Boris N., *Russia's Lomonosov*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1952.

Menter, John W., ed., *The Individual and the System*, Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1967.

Merritt, Richard L., and Rokkan, S., *Comparing Nations: Quantitative Data in Cross-National Research*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1966.

Metzger, Walter P., *Academic Freedom in the Age of the University*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1964.

Metzger, Wolfgang, *Die Grundlagen der Erziehung zur schoepferischen Freiheit* (The Foundations of Education for Creative Freedom, in German). Frankfurt A.M.: Kramer, 1949.

Mialaret, G., *Introduction a la pedagogie* (Introduction to Pedagogy, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1964.

Miel, Alice, *Creativity in Teaching*. Belmont, Calif.: Wadeworth Publishing Co., 1961.

Miles, Matthew B., *Innovation in Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

Miller, Raymond, *Twentieth Century Pessimism and the American Dream*. Detroit, Mich.: Wayne State University, 1961.

Millett, John D., *The Academic Community: An Essay on Organization*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962.

Milosz, Czeslaw, *The Captive Mind*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1953.

Milosz, Oscar, *Les origines iberiques du peuple juif*. (The Iberic Origins of the Jewish People, in French). Oeuvres completes, tome VII. Paris: Editions Andre Silvaire, 1961.

______________, *Les origines de la nation lithuanienne*. (The Origins of the Lithuanian Nation, in French). Oeuvres completes, tome IX. Paris: Editions Andre Silvaire, 1963.

Mills, C. Wright, *The Power Elite*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1959.

Moch, Jules, *Human Folly: To Disarm or Perish*. London: Gollancz, 1955.

Moehlman, Arthur H., *Comparative Educational Systems*. New York: Center of Applied Research in Education, 1964.

______________, & Roucek, Joseph, *Comparative Education*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1952.

Montessori, Maria, *Education for a New World*. Adyar-Madras (India): Kalakshatra, 1946.

More, St. Thomas, *Utopia*. Edited by Edward Surtz. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1964.

Morris, Van Cleve, et al., *Becoming an Educator*. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1963.

Morrison, Arnold, and McIntyre, Donald. *Teachers and Teaching*. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1970.

Mosse-Bastide, Rose-Marie, *Berson educateur* (Bergson the Educator, in French) Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1955.

Moumomi, Abdon, *Education en Afrique* (Education in Africa, in French). Paris: Francois Maspero, 1964.

Mukherjee, L., *Comparative Education for Students and Educationalist*. Allahabad (India): Kilab Mahal, 1959.

Mumford, Lewis, *The Myth of the Machine: Technics and Human Development*. New York: Harcourt Brace & World, 1967.

Myrdal, Gunnar, *The Challenge of World Poverty*. New York: Pantheon Books, 1970.

National Education Association, *New Horizons for the Teaching Profession*. Washington, D.C.: NEA, 1961.

Naville, Pierre, *L'automation et le travail humain* (Automation and the Human Work, in French). Paris: Editions du Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, 1961.

______________, *Ecole et societe* (School and Society, in French). Paris: Marcel Riviere, 1959.

Newman, John Henry, *The Idea of a University*. An Image Book, Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1959.

Niblett, W.R., ed., The Expanding University. London: Faber & Faber, 1962.

Noah, Harold J., and Eckstein, Max E., Toward a Science of Comparative Education. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1969.

Nolasco, M., Sir Richard W. Livingstone: Social Educator. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Ottawa, University of Ottawa, 1959.

OECD, Methods and Statistical Needs for Educational Planning. Paris: OECD, 1967.

Ontario Department of Education, Report of the Minister's Commission on the Training of Elementary Teachers (McLeod Report). Toronto, ODE, 1966.

Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Philosophy and Education. Toronto: OISE, 1967.

Oppenheimer, J.R., The Open Mind. New York: Simon & Shuster, 1955.

Orata, P.T., Educational Trends Abroad, Manila (Philippines): University Publishing Co., 1954.

Otto, Herbert A., Guide to Developing Your Potential. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967.

Ottonello, Giacomo, La scuola d'umanita di Paul Geheeb (The School of Humanity of Paul Geheeb, in Italian). Fiorenze: La Nuova Italia, 1966.

Paulauskas, Ramunas, A., L'educateur 1970-2000 A.D. (The Educator 1970-2000 A.D., in French), Le Droit, le 8 mars 1971.

______________, Creative Leadership in Education, Report: Education Leadership Conference December 4-6, Ottawa: The Ottawa School Board of Education, 1971.

______________, Canada dans l'education de XXe siecle (Canada in the 20th Century Education, in French). Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1971.

______________, Development of the Whole Man Through Physical Education. A Comparative Study. Preface by the President of the International Olympic Committee Avery Brundage. Ottawa: The University of Ottawa Press, 1968.

Parnes, H., ed., Planning Education for Economic and Social Development. Paris: OECD, 1963.

Paton, James M., The Role of Teachers' Organizations in Canadian Education. Toronto: W.J. Gage, 1962.

Pearson, Lester B., Democracy in World Politics. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1955.

Pentony, De Vere E., ed., China: The Emerging Red Giant. New York: Chandler Publications, 1962.

Perkin, H.J., New Universities in the United Kingdom. Paris: OECD, 1969.

Perroux, Francois, L'economie du XXe siecle (The Economy of the 20th Century, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1961.

______________, L'Europe sans rivages (Europe Without Shores, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1953.

Pestalozzi, Johann Heinrich, Gessammelte Werke (Collected Works, in German). 10 vols. Zuerich: Rascher, 1944-1947.

Peterson, Houston, ed. Great Teachers: Portrayed by Those Who Studied Under Them. New York: Vintage Books, 1949.

Petersen, Peter, Die neueuropaeische Erziehungsbewegung (The New European Education Movement, in German). Weimar: H. Boehlaus, 1926.

Phenix, Philip H., Realms of Meaning: A Philosophy of the Curriculum for General Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964.

Piaget, Jean, La formation du symbols chez l'enfant (The Symbol Making of the Child, in French) Neuchatel: Delachaux & Niestle, 1959.

Picard, M., Die Atomisierung der Person (The Atomization of the Person, in German). Hamburg: Furche, 1958.

Pirenne, Henri, Les grands courants de l'histoire universelle (The Great Currents of the Universal History, in French). 4 vols. Newchatel: Baconniere, 1945.

Plato, Works. 4 vols. New York: Tudor Publishing Co., 1954.

Poeggeler, Franz (Hrsg.), Innerlichkeit und Erziehung (The Inner Existence and Ecucation, in German). Freiburg i. Br.: Herder, 1964.

Poignant, Raymond, L'enseignement dans les pays du Marche Commun (Instruction in the Countries of the Common Market, in French). Paris: IPN, 1965.

Poirier, Yves, Une analyse comparee des facteurs administratifs (A Comparative Analysis of Administrative Factors, in French). Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Ottawa: University of Ottawa, 1971.

Poplawski, Antoni, Pisma pedagogiczne (Educational Works, in Polish). Zaklad Narodowy Imienia Ossolinskich, Wydawnictwo Polskiej Akademii Nauk, 1957.

Posadzy, Ludwik, Poglady pedagogiczne Adama Mickiewicza (Educational Views of Adam Mickiewicz, in Polish). Poznan: Albertinum, 1938.

Pounds, Ralph L., The Development of Education in Western Culture. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968.

Price, R.F., Education in the Communist China. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1970.

Procuta, Genius, (The Comparative Education Center of the University of Chicago and the Comparative Education Centre of the University of Ottawa) The Teacher in Soviet Lithuania (in Lithuanian). Proceedings: Congress of the Lithuanian Academy of Sciences, 1970.

Prost, Antoine, Histoire de l'enseignement en France, 1800-1967 (History of Instruction in France, in French). Paris: Librairie Armand Colin, 1968.

Quiavarino, Louis, Le joyeux Jean Bosco (The Joyful Giovanni Bosco, in French). Sherbrooke, Que.: Editions Paulines, 1959.

Rabbow, Paul, Paidagogia. Die Grundlagen der abendlaendischen Erziehungskunst in der Sokratik (Paidagogia: The Founcations of the Western Art of Teaching in the Work of Socrates, in German). Goettingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht, 1960.

Rackauskas, Jonas (The Chicago State College and the Comparative Education Centre of the University of Ottawa), National System of Education in Lithuania and Poland in the 18th Century, Lithuanus, Winter, 1968.

Rauh, Morton A., The trusteeship of Colleges and Universities. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969.

Read, Gerald, co-ed., The Changing Soviet School. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1960.

Reeves, Arthur W., et al., Educational Administration: The Role of the Teacher, Toronto: Macmillan, 1962.

_______________, The Canadian School Principal. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart, 1962.

Reif, Hans, Europaeische Integration (European Integration, in German). Koeln: Westdeutscher Verlag, 1962.

Reischauer, Edwin O., Japan: Past and Present. Revised edition. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1964.

_______________, United States and Japan. A Compass Book. New York: The Viking Press, 1962.

_______________, Fairbank, John K., History of East Asian Civilization. 2 vols. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin.

Reller, J.L., and Morphet, E.L., eds., Comparative Educational Administration, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1962.

Remplein, Heinz, Die seelische Entwicklung des Menschen in Kindes-und Jugendalter (The Mental Development of Man in the Age of Childhood and Adolescence, in German). 15. Auflage. Muenchen: Ernst Reinhardt Verlag, 1967.

Report of the Harvard Committee, The Graduate Study of Education. Foreword by Theodore R. Sizes. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1967.

Ricaldone, Pietro, Don Bosco Educatore (Don Bosco the Educator, in Italian). 2 vols. Colle Don Bosco (Asti): Libreria Dottrina Cristiana, 1951.

Rich, R.W., The Teacher in a Planned Society. London: University of London Press, 1950.

Richardson, C.A., et al., The Education of Teachers in England, France, and USA. Paris: UNESCO, 1953.

Roberts, David E., The Grandeur and Misery of Man. New York: Oxford University Press, 1955.

Robinsohn, Saul B., *Bildungsreform als Revision des Curriculum* (Educational Reform as Revision of the Curriculum, in German). Neuwied-Berlin: Luchterhand Verlag, 1967.

Robinsoh, Joan, *The Cultural Revolution in China*. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1969.

Robson, Charles B., ed., *Berlin: Pivot of German Destiny*. Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina Press, 1960.

Rodnik, David, *The Norwegians: A Study in National Culture*. Washington, D.C., Public Affairs Press, 1955.

Roehrs, Hermann, Die Schule und ihre Reform in der gegenwaertigen Gesellschaft (The School and Its Reform in Contemporary Society, in German). Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1967.

Romanini, Luigi, *Il movimento pedagogico all'estero* (The Educational Movement Abroad, in Italian). Brescia: La Scuola Editrice, 19.

Romanoff, A.L., *The University Campus: A Place of Creative Thought, Work and Play*. Ithaca, N.Y., 1960.

Rossello, Pedro, *L'education comparee au service de la planification* (Comparative Education for the Service of Planification, in French). Neuchatel: Delachaux & Niestle, 1961.

______________, *La teoria de las corrientes educativas* (The theory of the Educational Currents, in Spanish). La Habana: Centro Regional de la UNESCO, 1960.

Rossi, Mario, *The Third World: The Unaligned Countries and the World Revolution*. New York: Funk & Wagnalls, 1963.

Rostand, Jean, *Peut-on modifier l'homme?* (Is It Possible to Modify Man?, in French). Paris: Gallimard, 1956.

Roth, Leon, *Jewish Thought as a Factor of Civilization.* Paris: UNESCO, 1954.

Rougemont, Denis de, *Love in the Western World*. New York: Pantheon Books, 1956.

______________, *Idea of Europe*. New York: Macmillan, 1966.

______________, *Meaning of Europe*. New York: Stein & Day, 1965.

Rousseau, Jean-Jacques, *Emile*, ed. by W.H. Boyd, New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1962.

Ruda, Osvaldo Jorge (The Comparative Education Centre of the University of Ottawa), *Mision psicopedagogica en la Patagonia* (The Psychopedagogical Mission in Patagonia, in Spanish). Buenos Aires: Ed. Instituto de Humanidades, Universidad Nacional del Sur, 1960.

______________, *Problematica de la conciencia moral y religiosa en William James* (Problems of the Moral and Religious Conscience in the Work of William James, in Spanish). Unpublished Doctoral Thesis. Buenos Aires: Universidad Nacional de la Plata, 1969.

Ruegg, Walter, *Die studentischen Revolte gegen die buergerliche Gesellschaft* (The Student Revolts Against the Bourgeois Society, in German). Erlenbach-Zuerich, 1968.

Rugg, Harold O., *Teacher of Teachers: Frontiers of Theory and Practice in Teacher Education*.

Runes, Dagobert D., *The Hebrew Impact on Western Civilization.* New York: Citadel Press, 1965.

Rupp, Jean, *Lumiere a l'est* (The Light in the East, in French). Monte Carlo: Pastorelly, 1969.

Russell, Bertrand, *Common Sense and Nuclear Warfare*, New York: Simon & Shuster, 1959.

Russell, David Y., *Implications of Research for Canadian Classroom Practices*. Toronto: W.J. Gage, 1953.

Ryan, Claude, *Les comites: esprit et methodes* (The Committees: Spirit and Methods, in French). Montreal: Institut Canadien d'Education des Adultes, 1968.

Ryans, D.G., *Characteristics of Teachers.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1960.

Sabourin, Louis, ed., *Le systeme politique du Canada: institutions federales et quebecoises.* Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1968.

Sacks, Benjamin M., Educational Administration: A Behavioral Approach. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin, 1966.

Saettler, Paul, A History of Instructional Technology. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968.

Sakharov, Andrei D., Progress, Coexistence and Intellectual Freedom. New York: W.W. Norton, 1968.

Salisbury, Harrison E., War Between Russia and China. New York: W.W. Norton, 1969.

Sampson, Anthony, Anatomy of Britain. New York: Harper & Row, 1962.

_______________, Anatomy of Europe. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

Sanford, Nevitt, The American College: A Psychological and Social Interpretation of Higher Learning. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1961.

Santha, Gyorgy, et al., Santa Jose de Calasanz. Madrid: Biblioteca de Autores Cristianos, 1956.

Sarason, Seymour B., et al., The Preparation of Teachers: An Unstudied Problem in Education.

Sartre, Jean-Paul, Esquisee d'une theorie de l'emotion. (Outline of a Theory of Emotions, in French). Paris: Hermann, 1947.

Scarangello, Anthony, American Education Through Foreign Eyes. New York: Hobbs, Dorman & Co., 1967.

Scarfe, N.V., Conflicting Ideas in Teacher Education. University of Ohio Press, 1959.

Schaefer, Robert J., The School as a Center of Inquiry. New York: Harper & Row, 1967.

Schneider, Friedrich, Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft, Geschichte-Forschung-Lehre (Comparative Education: History, Research, Theory, in German). Heidelberg: Quelle Und Meyer, 1961.

_______________, Geltung und Einfluss der deutschen Paedagogik im Ausland (Value and Influence of German Education Abroad, in German). Berlin: Verlag von R. Oldenbourg, 1943.

_______________, Europaeische Erziehung (European Education, in German). Basel-Freiburg-Wien: Herder, 1959.

_______________, Triebkraefte in der Paedagogik der Voelker (Driving Forces in the Education of Nations, in German). Salzburg: Otto Mueller Verlag, 1946.

Schroedinger, Erwin, Science and Humanism. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1951.

Schultz, Theodore W., The Economic Value of Education. New York: Columbia University Press, 1963.

Schumpeter, Joseph A., Capitalism, Sccialism and Democracy. 3rd edition. A Torch book. New York: Harper & Row, 1950.

Schwarz, Richard, Universitaet und moderne Welt (University and the Modern World, in German). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1962.

Schweitzer, Albert, Teaching of Reverence for Life. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965.

Sciacca, Michele Federico, Philosophical Trends in the Contemporary World. 2 vols. Notre Dame, Ind.: University of Notre Dame Press, 1964.

Selye, Hans, The Stress of Life. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1956.

Servant-Schreiber, Jean-Jacques, The American Challenge. New York: Atheneum, 1968.

Seton-Watson, Hugh, The Russian Empire. New York: Oxford University Press, 1967.

Shevenell, Raymond H., The Faculty of Psychology and Education of the University of Ottawa, The Canadian Psychologist, January 1962.

Shields, Thomas E., The Making and Unmaking of a Dullard. Washington, D.C.: The Catholic Education Press, 1921.

Siebers, Georg, Das Ende des technischen Zeitalters (The End of the Technical Age, in German). Freiburg: Verlag Karl Alber, 1963.

Silberman, Charles E., The Myths of Automation. New York: Harper & Row, 1966.

Simard, Georges, Pour l'education dans un Canada souverain (Towards Education in a Sovereign Canada, in French). Ottawa: Editions de l'Universite d'Ottawa, 1945.

Simon, Herbert A., *Administrative Behavior*. New York: The Free Press, 1965.

Singer, Charles, et al., *History of Technology*. 5 vols. New York: Oxford University Press, 1954-1958.

Skidelsky, Robert, *English Progressive Schools: Abbotsholme, Gordonstoun, Summerhill*. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1970.

Skinner, B.F., *The Technology of Teaching*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968.

Stiles, L.J., et al., *Teacher Education in the United States*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1960.

Sofer, C., *The Organization from Within*. London: Tavistock Publications, 1961.

Soltis, Jonas F., *An Introduction to the Analysis of Educational Concepts*, Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1968.

Spetsieris, K., *He psychosynthesis tou anthropou* (The Psychosynthesis of Man, in Greek). Athenai, 1940.

Spranger, Eduard, *Der geborene Erzieher* (The Born Educator, in German). Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1968.

______________ *Paedagogischen Perspektiven* (Educational Perspectives, in German). 8. Auflage. Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1964.

Stalin, Joseph, *Voprosy leninizma* (Problems of Leninism, in Russian). Moskva: Gosudartstvennoe Izdatel'stvo, 1947.

Stinnett, T.M., and Haskow, L.D., *Teaching in American Schools: A Handbook for the Future Teacher*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1962.

Stovel, John A., *Canada in the World Economy*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959.

Stroup, Herbert, *Bureaucracy in Higher Education*. New York: The Free Press, 1966.

Suchodolski, Bogdan, *Zarys pedagogiki* (Outline of Pedagogy, in Polish). Warszawa: Panstowowe Wydawnicttwo Naukowe, 1958.

Sulzberger, C.L., *Unfinished Revolution*: America and the Third World. New York: Atheneum, 1965.

Super, Donald E., *Carser Development: Self-Concept Theory*. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963.

Sylvestre, Guy, *Structures sociales du Canada francais* (The Social Structures of French Canada, in French). Quebec, Que.: Les Presses de l'Universite Laval, 1966.

Taba, Hilda, *School Culture: Studies in Participation and Leadership*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1955.

Taylor, H., *The World as Teacher*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1970.

Taylor, William, ed., *Towards a Policy for the Education of Teachers*, Hamden, Conn., Shoe String Press, 1969.

Theobold, Robert, ed., *The Guaranteed Income: Next Step in Economic Evolution*? Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1966.

Tiedt, Sidney W., *The Role of the Federal Government in Education*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1966.

Toynbee, Arnold J., *The World and the West*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1953.

______________, et al., *The Impact of the Russian Revolution 1917-1967*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1967.

Thomas, Jean et Majault, Joseph, *Schulen Europas: Probleme und Tendenzen* (The Schools of Europe: Problems and Tendencies, in German). Stuttgart-Klett Verlag, 1963.

Tillich, Paul, *Love, Power and Justice*. A Galaxy Book. New York: Oxford University Press, 1960.

Tinbergen, Jan, *International Economic Integration*. Amsterdam: Elsevier, 1954.

Tolstoy, L.N., *Pedagogicheskie sochineniya* (Educational Works, in Russian). Moskva: Izdatel'stvo Akademii Pedagogicheskikh Nauk RSFSR, 1948.

______________, *Kingdom of God, and Peace Essays*. London: Oxford University Press, 1946.

Trouillet, Bernard, *Die schwedischen Schulreformen* (The Swedish School Reforms, in German). Frankfurt: Deutsches Institut fuer Internationale Paedagogische Forschung, 1966.

Trow, William Clark, *Teacher and Technology: New Designs for Learning*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1963.

Truhler, Karl Vladimir, *Teilhard und Solowjew* (Teilhard and Solovyov, in German). Freiburg-Muenchen: Verlag Alber, 1966.

Turin, Y., *L'education et l'ecole en Espagne de 1874 a 1902* (Education and School in Spain from 1874 to 1902, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1960.

Tusquets, Juan, *Teoria y practica de la pedagogia comparade* (Theory and Practice of Comparative Education, in Spanish). Madrid: Editorial Magisterio Espanol, 1969.

Tussman, Joseph, *Experiment at Berkeley*. London: Oxford University Press, 1969.

Ulich, Robert, *The Education of Nations*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1967.

UNESCO, *Adam Mickiewicz*. Paris: UNESCO, 1955.

Ushinsky, Konstantin Dmitrievich, *Cheloviek kak predmiet vospitaniya* (Man as Subject of Education, in Russian). St. Petersburg: Tip. M. Markusheva, 1901. Id. *Sobraniye sochinienij* (Collected Works, in Russian). Moskva-Leningrad: Izdatel'stvo Akademii Pedagogicheskikh Nauk RSFRSR, 1958.

Vachon, L. Albert, *Communaute universitaire* (Academic Community, in French). Quebec: Les Presses de l'Universite Laval, 1963.

Vaizey, John, *Economics of Education*. New York: The Free Press, 1962.

______________, *Education in the Modern World*. New York: McGraw-hill Book Co., 1967.

______________, *Education for Tomorrow*. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1966.

Vanier Institute of the Family, *An Inventory of Family Research and Studies in Canada*, Ottawa: VIF, 1967.

Vernon, Philip, *The Structure of Human Abilities*, London: Methuen, 1951.

Vernon, Raymond A., *Metropolis 1985*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960.

______________, *How Latin America Views the U.S. Inventor*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1965.

Vexliard, Alexandre, *La pedagogie comparee*. *Methodes et problemes* (The Comparative Education: Methods and Problems, in French). Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1967.

______________, *L'education comparee et la notion de caractere national* (Comparative Education and the Notion of National Character, in French). Revue de Psychologie des Peuples, 2e semestre, 1965.

Villalpando, Jose M., *Lineas generales de pedagogia comparada* (General Lines of Comparative Education, in Spanish). Mexico: Universidad Nacional Autonoma, 1961.

______________, *Pedagogia comparada: teoria y technica* (Comparative Education: Theory and Practice, in Spanish). Mexico: Editorial Porrua, 1966.

Volpicelli, Luigi, *Storia della scuola sovietica* (History of the Soviet School). Brescia: Scuola Editrice, 1951.

Vucinich, Alexander, *Science in Russian Culture*. 1861-1917. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1970.

Wall, W.D., et al., *Failure in School*. Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1962.

Wallas, Graham, *The Great Society: A Psychological Analysis*. Lincoln, Nebr.: University of Nebraska Press, 1966.

Walmsley, John, *Neill and Summerhill: A Man and His Work*. Baltimore, Md.: Penguin Books, 1970.

Ward, Barbara, *The Rich Nations and the Poor Nations*. New York: W.W. Norton, 1962.

Ward, W.E.F., *Educating the New Nations*. London: Allen & Unwin, 1959.

Warshofsky, Fred, *The 21st Century: The New Age of Exploration*. New York: The Viking Press, 1969.

Watson, F., *Vives: el grand Valenciano* (Vives: The Great Valencian). New York: Oxford University Press, 1922.

Weinstock, Heinrich, *Die tragoedie des Humanismus* (The Tragedy of Humanism, in German). Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1953.

Weidner, Edward W., *The World Role of Universities*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962.

Whyte, William H., *The Organization Man*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1957.

Wurzbacher, G., *Der Mensch als soziales und personales Wesen* (Man as Social and Personal Being, in German). Stuttgart: Ferdinand Enke Verlag, 1963.

Yuzyk, Paul, *Canadian Cultural Rights.* Ottawa: Canadian Cultural Rights Committee, 1968.

Yzermans, Vincent A., *A New Pentecost: Vatical II*. Westminster, Md.: The Newman Press, 1963.

Zagoria, Donald, *The Sino-Soviet Conflict*. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1962.

Zubov, Viktor and Malkova, Zoya, *Developments in Russian Education*, *First World Congress of Comparative Education Societies*, Ottawa, August 20, 1970.

THE RELEVANCE OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION
FOR TEACHER TRAINING

Saul B. Robinsohn
Institute for Educational Research
Max Planck Society and Free University
(Berlin)

1. Needs and Possibilities
2. Relevance of Method
3. Relevance of Theory
4. Political Relevance
5. Practical Relevance

1. Needs and Possibilities

Unlike the pastor in the well-known American story who preached about sin and, in the concise account of one listener, "was against it," the galaxy of comparatists mustered by the organizers of this conference to speak about comparative education in teacher training are all "for it." I am also for it, but I do not think that the need, let alone the possibility, of including comparative education courses in the regular programmes of pre-service teacher education is quite self-evident. The case will have to be made out in some detail.

Criticism of current institutions for teacher training has been levelled--with varying accents in different places-- at the lack of educational relevance or, alternatively, of scholarly quality of studies in the subjects of instruction (this need not concern us here), at the inadequacy and primitiveness of method courses, at the redundancy and lack of intellectual rigour in the foundation studies. Effects of such training, it is argued, quickly give way to the conventions, the "practical experience" and the folklore of an established craft, thus diminishing the chances of a critical and innovative attitude on the teacher's part and of genuine professional standing. In consequence, reform plans aim at improving the training for professional competence, at creating opportunities to form critical attitudes vis-à-vis the practices of the prevailing system and to foster awareness of its social and political problems.

A plea to include the systematic study of comparative education in the regular training curriculum will therefore have to show what specific contributions such studies are expected to make with respect to the practical competence and to the critical awareness of the future teacher. There is no reason why, in justifying curriculum content for teacher education, we should be less demanding than in developing curricula for other phases of schooling. Claims on the training syllabus come from many parts of that wide field called, or not, the discipline of education, including the very just demand for an integrated programme of theory and practice. If we are asking for a permanent place for comparative education we should be able to show

- that it employs an intellectually rigorous method affording useful explanations of educational phenomena,
- that, moreover, the claims usually made for comparative education--that it accords "perspective", that it engenders sensitivity for the relative range of national experience etc.,--really amount to a theoretical understanding, through cross-cultural comparison, of education as a system,
- that we really have here that integrating approach which, as is often said, leads to an understanding of the politics of education and, consequently, to

political alertness and a reforming attitude,

- that, finally, the cross-cultural study of education is of practical value, both in an applicative sense--the critical use of a repertory of devices and solutions--and in an interpretive sense--an improved orientation in the wide field of educational institutions and practices.

We may call these four aspects the relevance of method and of theory, the political and the practical relevance.

2. Relevance of Method

It is well known that through comparative analysis we wish to arrive at general explanations of relationships between educational phenomena and those of other dimensions of society, making use of the wide variability of an intercultural field. On the basis of this uncontroversial postulate it has been contended that, as an honest scientific method, comparison will have to be subjected to the strict rules of the various forms of multivariate statistical analysis, that methodological "eclecticism" is at the bottom of the "identity crisis" of comparative method, and that it is only by strictly adhering to pure scientism that we can, through comparative education, teach our students "a systematic method." Now, I must resist here the temptation to step out into the wondrous land of general methodological discussion and shall limit my argument to the context of teacher training. And in this context I am sure that there are other sectors of a training programme, no less essential than comparative education, through which the elements of strictly enforced research and statistical analysis can be imparted. (Which is certainly not to say that the latter is not an important aspect of C.E.). The characteristic contribution however of the comparative method is, I submit, rather that synthesis of complementary modes of insight which has been called the "scholarly amalgam of history and the social sciences," the combination of hermeneutic interpretation, statistical analysis and hypothetico-logical construction (the "imaginary experiment"). Comparison challenges the imaginative faculties of empathy and, at the same time, exercises competencies of disciplined reasoning and systematic generalization. It is thus not only methodologically "eclectic" (if you wish to call it that, why not?), but also inter-disciplinary in its scope. Its introduction into the curriculum of teacher education could fill the place of the history of education--though I hold no brief to disinherit that subject--and at the same time open up an avenue to the other social sciences.

What about "Education in Other Lands" (Auslandspädagogik)? Is there any place left for the naive "comparative argument," for the imaginary and real "educational tourism?" I shall come back to this later, when I speak of "practical relevance." On principle however I should say this: If we are to foster a critical attitude, this must begin with the exactness of analysis and argumentation in our own field. There is, to be sure, in the employment of comparative method a place for description, as well as for analysis and interpretation; its functions are of a heuristic as well as of a generalizing, a predictive and a speculative kind. But an improved teacher training programme can no more afford the vagaries of uncritical "cultural borrowing" than it can retain the caprices of psychological folklore.

Which brings me to my last point on "method". We have reason to mistrust operational reductionism which subjects criteria of theoretical and practical relevance to those of methodological purity. The barrenness of much of the work of psychologists for educational practice--and theory!--bears this out. Similarly, in comparative education, we must beware of formulating our questions and of reducing research design to fit operational requirements at the price of theoretically satisfying interpretations and practical guidance. If this is true of research, a fortiori should it be applied to the education of teachers.

The request to include some research experience in our teacher training curriculum is, I believe, well founded. Such experience is expected to foster critical and experimental attitudes toward prevailing practices and to prepare the future teacher for later co-operation with educational research, both as a consumer, as it were, and as a partner. Comparative education seems to be well suited to such an exemplary task. The very pluralism of its methods makes it possible for the variety of intellectual inclinations and of aptitudes which must be expected among student teachers to be challenged, and for a wide field of subjects to be investigated.

3. Relevance of Theory

The none too useful discussions on the question whether or not Education is a "discipline" have at least shown that, whatever its dependence on the contributions of a family of cognate, connected disciplines--a feature which it has in common with other instances of disciplined professional knowledge,--Education has its tasks in applying such contributions to a specific practical domain, thus lending it coherent conceptual structure, and in formulating general theories about its institutions and its processes. The field of education has offered strong resistance to theory-building, a fact which has sometimes--wrongly, I think--been attributed to the incompetence of its professors. Quite apart from the undeniable fact that other domains of social action have--so far, and for good reason--not been much more successful, we seem to be faced in this case with an exceptionally intricate matrix of influences and dependences and with so-called "molar" problems of values and cause-effect relationships, strongly determined by cultural parameters. Evidently, this renders generalization, theory formation and prediction rather difficult. Comparison, employed in its heuristic function, can, to begin with, place the institutions and processes within a *conceptual model*, being aided in identifying structural-functional characteristics by a great variety of particular systems. For the future teacher this may be an almost unique opportunity to clarify and, at the same time, question his educational categories and notions. Examples are hardly needed, but take, just for one, the concept of "achievement" and its relations, say, to variables of ability on the one hand and of needs and aspirations on the other. Relate this concept to Swedish pragmatism, American ideals of socialization, Marxist theory of personality growth, Japanese achievement orientation; then--only then--speak of "achievement" and the conditions leading to it. Or take the concept of "differentiation." I know of no better way to lend it more clarity and distinctiveness than to investigate its different functions in different educational systems. In fact, an application of this notion in an analysis of the Soviet system for instance can prove a key to a realistic understanding of the system itself. The clarification of such concepts and categories is of course a prerequisite for any methodical, theoretically valid work.

Let us go one step further. I think that there is one particular aspect of educational theory, the exploration of which by comparative analysis can be of special benefit in teacher training--the aspect of the *development* of an educational system. It is here where those middle-range theories can be formulated that are the proper domain of comparative investigation. Call it "change," "reform" or "modernization," we want--and the future teacher certainly wants--an insight into the *dynamics* of the system. You will notice that I do not speak of "innovation," since, while research of innovation aims at identifying the conditions under which occur the initiation, the management and the diffusion of particular devices for an improved function of certain details within a system, I speak here of the impulses, the discussion, the formation of consensus and decision leading up to the reform of a complex system. Some researchers consider the concentration on innovation of methodological advantage. Perhaps they are right. I regard the more complex task just sketched as the proper assignment of comparison which is to arrive at a kind of "field theory," at a conditional-genetic explanation of educational processes within a larger societal field and thus to add the dynamic dimension to mere structural-functional analysis of a system. Perhaps we are thus echoing--in a somewhat more sophisticated and more modest fashion, I hope--the claims of the early comparatists who spoke of arriving, through their new method, at a "science of education . . . "

You may have noticed that I have come close to identifying one aspect of comparative education with comparative politics. Quite so. We are dealing with a problem area where both subsystems, the political and the educational, overlap and which, incidentally, has attracted the special attention of certain political scientists in recent years. Like them, we are interested in aspirations and in their articulation, in commitments, resources and pressures and in their conversion into a political decision, in change, and, indeed, reform. The focus of our interest is of course different, ours being the substance of education. In fact, those of us who have devised their work round the concept of "International Development Education" are, methodologically and thematically, working in both spheres--comparative education and politics. (By the way, the ambiguity of the very term "development education" with its triple connotation, the personal, the historical and the technical, does not make for particular clarity).

Let it be marked however that, while comparative education is especially interested in the dynamics of educational *policy*--an interest which we should introduce into the programmes of teacher training--we must never loose sight of the immanent character of the specific educational aims and of the complex instruments which serve them. An exclusive preoccupation with one set of parameters tends to produce a lopsided view on the overall development which we wish to study, as witnessed by certain conclusions of the economics of education and by certain so-called trend analyses. Only too frequently do such analyses fail to take account of the wide range of adjustments of an educational system and of its institutions to new economic, political, social conditions and ignore the influence of "determinants" rooted in ideology, cultural traditions, practical convention. Comparative education should give its students an opportunity of understanding educational development within this wide and variable range. This will equip them only the better for their practical political tasks.

4. Political Relevance

It is not just a matter of understanding the politics of education. A most important question is whether in the curriculum of teacher education provisions can be made to foster attitudes of an active political commitment on the part of the future teacher. Teachers, individually and in many instances collectively, in their professional organizations, have shown a measure of abstention from involvement in the great controversies of educational policy that has often been interpreted as a want of self-reliance and autonomy and has consequently impaired their professional standing.

Why will comparative education help them to amend this lack of "engagement?" Because the study of a wide variety of experiences and practices helps, I think, to overcome parochialism, conventionalism and routine. The quickened pace of educational development since the end of the last world war and the need to reformulate educational policies have led to a realization of this possibility. Parliamentary and other advisory bodies in many countries have included comparative studies and surveys in their reports and recommendations and have thus broadened the horizon of the politician and of the educational administrator. Members of the profession most intimately concerned should not lag behind. However, this is as yet a rather unsophisticated, if correct, way of looking at the issue. The matter may be more serious than that. The teacher may be in danger of being relegated to the periphery of social development, if he clings to the conventions of accustomed and well-established educational instruments and practices. Through the study of educational developments in other systems he may become aware of existing or of imminent crises in his own. Thus, to mention just a few examples, comparative studies of student revolt or of his not-so-silent partners in out-of-school education or of the educational problems of the suffering masses at the urban periphery--may well lure him out of the complacency or at least the seclusion of what has largely been, if not a universally respected, at least a protected professional group. (I realize that there are considerable differences in this respect in the conditions of countries represented at this conference).

What I am really driving at is, I suppose, nothing less than a sense of solidarity to be engendered by a study of the universal and common socio-educational problems within a highly developed and expanding industrial society. Study and communication can lead to empathy, empathy, in turn, to sympathy and solidarity. If this sounds, as well it may, unduly idealistic or utopian, I will just remind you of the connections between education and utopianism in general, and, indeed, between utopia and comparative education in particular . . .

Whether feelings of solidarity will lead to active commitment and co-operation, within a national system and beyond, will partly depend on the intensity of relevant educational experiences offered. Other speakers will, I presume, speak about international exchange and other forms of organized experience abroad. My own concern is with the effect of a systematic study of common problems in a universal perspective, undertaken--whatever the resources and opportunities--under the aspect of their relevance to the future teacher's own problems and personal commitment.

In the communist east there is little doubt about such practical effects of comparative education in teacher training. As the representative of a discipline, at once analytic and "prognostic"--so the argument runs--the comparatist asks "what could be?", "why is it not so?", "how is it possible that it will be so?". Thus, through generalizing from the aggregated experience of "progressive" education and from a critical analysis of "state monopolistic" educational practice, "objectively founded blue-prints for reform" will be generated. An insight into the trends and basic regularities of educational development gained in this manner will raise the quality and the effectiveness of the teacher's work. A way of arguing in favour of comparative education for teacher training which, if somewhat naive, is straightforward. It raises the question of practical relevance which we must now consider.

5. Practical Relevance

The dividing line between what is here called "political" and "practical" relevance is of course uncertain. Let us consider the concept which seems prevalent in comparative law as an instance of a practical--or pragmatic--approach to cross-cultural comparison. The characteristic uses of comparison in this field are: (1) regarding the various systems as an "arsenal" of possible solutions to common problems; (2) looking for functional equivalences in a quickly contracting field of international relations and interdependences. Having myself rejected the naive usage of "cultural borrowing," the uncritical "comparative argument" in the beginning of my remarks, I yet see no reason to depreciate a cautious use of intercultural transposition altogether. Here too any rigid purism is quite impractical and untenable. Experience in a wider field shows, first of all, "what is possible" and must then lead to a closer examination of the particular circumstances. Why not study in this manner, say, forms of student participation in secondary schools or the requirements of polytechnic education in "post-industrial" society or alternative organizations of teacher training or the use of language laboratories in foreign language instruction. In fact, the simple study of international experience may sometimes be a more effective way to break the tenacity of a professional subculture than subtle scientific enlightenment. Industry all over the world has a good deal to teach in this respect.

The case for this kind of comparative study becomes particularly evident with regard to former colonial areas. The need to escape, to a degree, one single metropolitan influence is obvious and will be well served by a rather comprehensive survey of alternative systems.

Finally, if a strong interlacing of theory and practice has been demanded for teacher training, in order to improve the relevance of theory on the one hand, and to promote a critical approach to conventional practice on the other, this is valid for comparative education as well. One speaks of a "fruitful tension" between pragmatic orientation and scholarly insight. Take the case of curriculum development as one instance of growing teacher participation in educational planning--regardless of the relative influence of teachers in shaping major educational policy. A comparative study of curricula over a wide range of educational systems is likely to yield information about a great variety of alternative solutions under similar circumstances and to stimulate the imagination to produce new ones. Such comparative study has been an explicit part of the preparations for curriculum revision in some countries of Eastern Europe. Eventually, a sharpened perception of the peculiar culture--and system-bound curriculum variables, as well as of the recurring patterns of curriculum construction, may well result in more sophisticated conceptual and theoretical models of curriculum development.

These then are the objectives of the study of comparative education within the teacher training programme:

> a heightened awareness of educational problems and, hopefully, an ensuing readiness to engage in political action for their solution,
>
> competence in dealing with educational matter with a measure of methodical refinement (without undue technicality) and with a pretension to theoretical consistence,
>
> better preparation for responsible choice among the alternatives of day-to-day practice. A large order, is it not?

MATERIALS AND AIDS IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN THE FRAME-WORK OF THE UNIVERSITY

THE FILM: "THE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL IN ENGLAND" AS AN EXAMPLE

H. Röhrs (Heidelberg)

It is the aim and objective of Comparative Education to interpret the characteristics of an educational system against its general cultural background as one small component part of a comprehensive entity. In contrast to the mere collection of data for the sake of information and the preparation of reports about educational conditions in a foreign area, an academic discussion within the framework of Comparative Education needs to take place on the basis of a "tertium comparationis", which provides the frame of reference for one's own plan of research. We can only acquire a scientific awareness of the tasks of Comparative Education when, through precise questioning a coherent series of problems from among the multitude of educational conditions begins to develop profile. It is not the comparison of several educational systems per se but rather the essential criteria of each of them, such as for example its Theory of Education, its Conception of Discipline, and identity of its teacher, and other components which yield results by virtue of their inherent limitation.

The practicability and yield of our efforts in research are best guaranteed beginning with an investigation and interpretation of educational events in one's own country. The objectivity of such investigations is preserved with the help of a self-critical presentation of one's own point of view and not through fictitiously assuming a position which claims to have freed itself from a specific point of view, like a mirror which merely reflects. Thus the "tertium comparationis" is that third element which renders possible the comparison between two educational areas of interest within the international field by acquiring a limited but profitable problem of research after having previously clarified its home.

To this date Comparative Education has still not acquired control of the full range of its field of research. Therefore it is exposed to the danger of putting into the center of its attention a narrowed concept of education which is meant to prove its validity first of all in the classroom. Education and Training, however, are basic events in the course of human existence which must permeate all the dimensions of our societal framework.

Therefore, Comparative Education as that discipline of educational research which deliberately aims at international aspects simply cannot limit itself to its practical impact on classroom activity but it must clarify the whole spectrum of pedagogical facts. In the same way in which General Education as a discipline has subdivided itself, due to the complexity of its total structure of research, into Social and Therapeutic Education, Business Education with its special areas of investigation such as Education for the Trades, Industrial Education, Occupational Therapy, Adult Education, Educational Psychology and Educational Sociology, Comparative Education will likewise be forced to adapt itself in a meaningful way to all of these areas.

In the long run we will have to overcome the still prevailing monomany of the merely practical utilization of Comparative Education in order to be able to unfold our comparisons to the fullest. The objectives and methodology of Adult Education contributions to the improvement of educational conditions in industry, more attention to the indigent and deprived child through a variety of differentiated educational measures at public schools and in closed institutions to impart to youngsters an awareness of their identity with the help of adequate methods of classification and analysis, the attitudes of our youth toward work and job, the socially and culturally deprived youngsters as well as juvenile delinquency are some of the fascinating problem areas which could gain clarity through comparison.

Whether we are to talk about a separate Comparative Business Education or Comparative Social Education or about only one Comparative Education, within which all of these special questions will be clarified, is more than a mere problem of nomenclature. If one were to recommend the latter solution one could reason that the neat identification of problems would require their direct treatment with the investigative methods of Comparative Education, which would then only require a re-interpretation and application to whatever specific case is being considered. This would surely imply that comparisons in the international field could be made within any one of those disciplines. However, scientific accuracy and integrity presupposes that those who represent any given field are familiar with the methodology and mission of Comparative Education thereby becoming comparatists themselves, at least partially. An analysis, in the sense of Comparative Education, needs to an ever increasing extent the clarification of the differing academic validity of all those fields in which comparisons are to be made. Let's become presently aware of the fact that each one of the documented differences or "things in common" has its own history, in which we can see the proof of that old educational adage that only through a comparative study of the educational practices of our neighbors can we solve the problems existing in our own educational work.

To understand foreign people is, however, subject to limitations, a fact which was so aptly expressed by T.S. Eliot when he said: "What we usually mean by understanding another people is an approximation of understanding which stops exactly at a point where the one who tries to understand would begin to loose the essential characteristics of his own culture."[1] This is the polarization of distance and relationship, inherent in Dilthey's "Concept of Understanding" (Verstehensbegriff), which T.S. Eliot has in mind here when he adds in an exemplifying manner that he who, in order to understand the "inner world" of a tribe of cannibals, actually participates in cannibalism, has thus probably removed himself too far from his original point of departure and investigative intent and thereby becomes incapable of distinguishing the "inside" from the "outside" with clarity. The rather tense relationship indicated here is bound to deflate to some extent the pragmatic confidence with which Kandel expects of Comparative Education that it may teach to analyze more correctly one's own system of education or the same confidence with which Nicholas Hans emphasizes Comparative Education as having promoted positive developments by the mere act of comparing, thus classifying Comparative Education as possessing an inherent and original tendency toward reform.

As far as the Western German representation of Comparative Education in Teaching and Research and its level of performance is concerned, reference should be made here only by way of a few examples. Its development was quite decisively influenced by those pioneers of Comparative Education, Franz Hilker, and Friedrich Schneider. Centers of Research in Comparative Education in Germany are to be found at Hamburg, Marbug, Bochum, Heidelberg and Berlin.

Since 1966 a Research Center for Comparative Education has been in existence at the Graduate School of Education at Heidelberg University. Research concentrates here on the "Developing Countries". The results of the research done at Heidelberg comprise an investigation of educational reforms in Ghana, of the Elementary School in Algeria as well as the school systems of other African countries as well as China and Persia.

I have personally prepared a study of educational reforms in African countries which will be published shortly under the title "Africa - Educational Problems of a Continent". Included in this book is the experience of one semester of research which I spent in Africa. In addition to a fundamental discussion of the educational endeavors of the missionary and colonial periods, indigenous forms of education, the rites of initiation, college problems, community development programs as well as the tendencies towards Africanization, documented analyses of several countries were prepared, especially of those which could serve as an example for French colonial education, such as Algeria and Togo, or for the influences in colonial education in the Anglo-Saxon area, such as Ghana and Nigeria, or for countries, which have enjoyed a relatively free educational development, such as Liberia and Ethiopia, also examples for an African Socialism as practiced in the case of Algeria and Tanzania and, finally, for the South African Republic on account of the problems of the so-called "apart" development ("Apartheid").

These conflicting educational problems have been dealt with frequently in lectures and seminars at Heidelberg University. A certain degree of exemplification was always made possible by the fact that we have quite a few students from Africa who are able to enrich our discussions by way of experience and demonstration. Moreover, I had made several movies during my sojourn in Africa which were shown on those occasions.

In order to add to our list of Universities dealing with these problems the following institutions must be mentioned for the sake of completeness: the German Institute for International Educational Research at Frankfurt, the newly founded Max-Planck-Institute for Educational Research at Berlin, which has its own division of Comparative Education, the Institute for Eastern Affairs Research at Berlin and the UNESCO Institute for Education at Hamburg. Publications serving Comparative Education in Germany are: The International Journal of Education, the series of books entitled "Comparative Education and Pedagogy in Foreign Countries", edited by Leonhard Froese, Gottfried Hausmann, Hermann Röhrs, and Walter Schultze, the series of books entitled "Educational Publications of the Institute for Eastern European Affairs at the Free University of Berlin", edited by Oskar Anweiler and Siegfried Baske.

In connection with the teaching of Comparative Education as a subject it seems important to inquire about possible teaching aids. The most natural way to keep our doors and windows open for new ideas and stimulation from that great educational world of ours is the standing invitation extended to guest-speakers as well as to guest lecturers employed for a longer period of time. This form of an exchange of ideas and enrichment of experience is of equal

---

1. Thomas S. Eliot: Notes toward the Definition of Culture - German Edition: Was ist Kultur? Berlin/Frankfurt 1947, S. 51.

benefit to the participants and to Research and Teaching. Every teacher in the field of Comparative Education simply needs a sojourn abroad of some duration. By the same token each institution can justify its international mission only by the active participation of qualified guests. The enlargement of such exchanges to include an ever increasing number of people, particularly postgraduate students engaged in research, is a process of urgent necessity.

How difficult it still is to materialize for such elementary requirements for active teaching can be experienced by all those who ever attempt to obtain a position as a guest lecturer in another country. It is most urgently recommended that opportunities be created in order that such sojourns can be facilitated through financial aids and partnership exchanges between universities. Naturally the program of lectures would need to be coordinated. It ought to be organized in such a way that it would impart significant stimulation to the host university and leave enough time for the guest to do his own important research and to travel extensively in the host country.

Traveling has always been the driving force behind comparisons and especially our discipline has obtained its foundations through the efforts of educational travelers and their subsequent reflections on the results of their journeys. Among these natural forms of demonstration in the teaching of Comparative Education the excursion or "field trip" has assumed an important role. It is necessary to visit with groups of students again and again all those educational institutions abroad which have developed into "models" in order that one may receive new impulses for one's own work. Lively scientific discussions and projects can be the results of such "visitations". Naturally, field trips must be meticulously prepared by the participants. Unfortunately, financial problems are still proving to be a hindrance in the execution of such plans. Therefore, it should be pointed out emphatically that the budget of our institutions of research should be increased considerably in order that such teaching projects can be carried out.

The educational movie on problems of foreign education has assumed a very significant role. In this field there is an unfortunate lack of suitable films, which, for example, show experimental schools, demonstrate problems in teacher training, point out methodological and didactical aspects, describe styles and manners of instruction and education at various types of schools, etc. One could really begin to worry about this lack at a time during which the mass media play such an important part in our everyday living. Furthermore it is important to make an inventory of all those good movies which are already available to us. The inclusion of a good film dealing with an educational area in another country is a genuine teaching aid. It may open up entirely new vistas and avenues of thought. By and large it can be stated that a close look at the aims and results thus far attained reinforces the impression that Comparative Education really still stands at the beginning of a promising future development.

In order to secure against this background of our general discussion some concrete results I would like to make the following suggestions:

1. That an international commission for the establishment of exchanges between continents and countries be founded. Guest-Professorships for one semester or for shorter periods of time, partnerships between Research Centers for Comparative Education and exchanges of postgraduate students working on pertinent projects for their countries should be part of such an arrangement.

2. That a "Clearing House for Instructional Materials" which were developed in various countries but could be of supranational significance, be founded in order that those materials could become accessible to several countries. Foremost among these materials would be movies dealing with the problems of Comparative Education, for instance films about "Pre-School Education in the USA", "Education for the Trades in Japan", "Polytechnic Education in Soviet Russia" or "The Comprehensive School in England", which were produced by representatives of the countries concerned but are equally important for the teaching of Comparative Education in other countries.

In doing this comparisons can be extended even further to deal with such topics as "The Sixth Form in Germany, England and France" - which, incidentally, is going to be the "theme" of the next conference of the German Section of the Comparative Education Society in Europe in January of 1971. As the President of this Section I will prepare for this conference by a study of "Sixth Form Colleges in England and France". I would appreciate any suggestions that might come to me from some of the ladies and gentlemen assembled here today.

Now, beyond what was said before about educational films such movies could be produced not only by the representatives of whatever nation is being researched but also by comparatists from other countries if they intend to use such films for their academic instruction.

During this year, in cooperation with the "Institute for Movies in Science and Teaching" at Munich, I have produced in England a film about the "Comprehensive School", which is presently and frequently being shown at German Universities in the Teaching of Comparative Education. It has rendered an invaluable service by providing pertinent information during the present public discussion about the "German Comprehensive School" (Gesamtschule).

The "Clearing House" previously suggested should register usable movies for the teaching of Comparative Education on an international basis and at the same time secure possibilities for a quick distribution of such movies. Moreoever, we should enter into a discussion as to whether scientific movies dealing with certain problem areas could be produced under the auspices of this "Documentation Center" or "Clearing House". I would like to flatly describe it as a failure that such movies up to now have been at our disposal only in a very limited number and a rather narrow selection. This should warrant the founding of an international committee to deal with this problem, I believe.

If you agree, Ladies and Gentlemen, and in order to demonstrate here and today, by way of example and beyond the level of discussing basic programs, my before-mentioned movie about the "Comprehensive School in England" will be shown now. Being a rather imperfect audio-visual aid it will surely meet with much criticism, yet it may serve the function of imparting an idea for stimulation. Indeed, it has also been the objective of my talk and the aim of my suggestions: to impart ideas in order to stimulate cooperation in the international field. After all, it is the mission of Comparative Education not only to do research into foreign educational systems but, in the last analysis, also to further international cooperation toward the attainment of our common goals.

THE PLACE OF COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS:

ORGANIZATION OF COURSES

Susanne M. Shafer
Arizona State University
Tempe, Arizona

Why should comparative and international education be included in the education of teachers? Why should we transport teachers beyond the confines of their own society? Do others in foreign lands know more than we do about what to teach our children or how to go about it?

These of us gathered here have made known our conviction that comparative and international education has a decisive place in teacher education. Let me present to you a program of courses I propose for this purpose. To delineate the rationale for the courses, I shall indicate what I find to be the major phases of undergraduate teacher preparation as well as the problems most frequently facing young, career-minded teachers. I shall show how courses in comparative and international education may be organized to satisfy the needs of pre-service and of in-service teachers.

International Education for Prospective Teachers

Six major phases, or components, of an undergraduate program of teacher education may be identified as necessary if the new teacher is to go forth with some confidence, skill, and knowledge about the job ahead. First, there must be opportunities for self-selection. The student must learn what it is like to be a teacher, whether he is suited to be one and even a good one, and whom and what he wants to teach. Second, in American institutions of higher learning he must also devote considerable time to the enhancement of his general education to expand his fund of knowledge and his intellectual powers and other human process skills and to address himself to the question of his own values. Third, the prospective teacher must gain an understanding of the historical, philosophical, socio-political, and economic foundations of education. He must become familiar with what is known about human growth and development and the psychology of learning. From these learnings will come the next phase or component, an understanding of the existing curriculum in schools. Fifth, the student must learn didactics, or how to teach the subject or subjects for which he will be responsible in the classroom; and, sixth, hopefully he will begin to develop a philosophy of teaching representing a commitment to his pupils, the society, and the profession.

Comparative and international education can be introduced into the several components of pre-service teacher education. To assist the undergraduate as he decides whether or not to be a teacher, we may ask him to read Sylvia Ashton-Warner's *Teacher* or Harry Walcott's, *A Kwakiutl Village and School*. Both books deal with minority groups or what in the United States today are often called the "Disadvantaged." Both accounts of a teacher and his work help the student to contrast what he reads with the role of a teacher in his own experience. To diminish a college student's provincialism and frequent subconscious ethnocentrism, a culture-arm and even language study of some depth ought probably to be recommended as a part of his general education. If serious attention is given to the foundations of education, the prospective teacher will hear about other than only his own compatriots' contribution to psychology, philosophy, and the social sciences. He should also learn about major historical and cultural influences on his own educational system.

Surely, the one means of providing him with a broad perspective of his future profession, of the world, and of his own nation and its schools is to encourage him to spend a semester of study outside his own country. During that time ideally he should take courses at a foreign university with pre-service or experienced teachers and he should serve as a teacher aide in an elementary or secondary school. In view of the undergraduate's openness and intensive search for values and meaning, the semester abroad as a student and apprentice teacher should be a most profitable experience. It should contribute measurably to his eventual formulation of a personal philosophy of teaching.

Comparative Education for the New Teacher

Turning to the program for in-service teachers, I would propose two courses to meet their problems. These most often center on instructional skills, adequacy of subject knowledge, contributing to curriculum development, especially within their own school, understanding the role of the school in their society, readiness to experiment, and concern for their long term professional improvement. With an eye to this list, I propose that the first course utilize a comparative approach to help the teachers to improve their classroom instruction. The other should apply a comparative and international approach to a clarification of the socio-political foundations of education. Together these courses may result in the new teacher satisfying his desire to help to make his own school a more successful place for learning and his advancing himself in his profession to the extent he desires. Both proposed courses should also allow the first year graduate student, for whom the courses were intended, to reevaluate and perhaps modify his own philosophy of teaching.

I come now to the organization of these two courses. The first one might be designated as "The Teaching-Learning Process in a Comparative Perspective," or simply, "Instruction in the Schools of Selected Nations." This course might begin with a comparative study of early childhood education. Included might be information about such education in the Soviet Union, on an Israeli kibbutz, in a British Infant School, in a Montessori school, and in an American Headstart program. Next the class might turn to a study of how reading is taught in the United States and in Great Britain, followed by an account of the same activity in a non-English speaking country such as France or Germany. While a comparative study of early childhood education might introduce the new teacher to the variety of possible instructional approaches and the philosophy behind each one, learning about the teaching of reading a non-English speaking nation may create greater patience with the poor readers considering the obstacles to teaching and learning to read that face teachers and pupils respectively in English speaking countries.

The next topic might very well be the problem of second language teaching. Much work has already been done in this area. In many parts of the United States and Canada teachers must deal with pupils for whom the language used in school is a second language. For Canadians the problem of making pupils bilingual is a constant challenge. The data gathered in the many developing nations can readily be used here to give teachers new insight into the matter of language acquisition by pupils.

To aid teachers in their everyday work in the classroom, a survey of some of the more innovative uses of audio-visual devices and other applications of technology to the teaching-learning process should be included. West German educational films and films of the Canadian Film Board may be viewed and discussed: "Sesame Street," America's most recent success in educational television may be analyzed; examples of programed instruction, of computerized instruction, and of slide-tape presentations should be evaluated. Altogether, this part of the course should allow the new teacher to review his own instructional strategies and then expand these.

Another way to help new teachers to diversify their methodology is to study in a comparative way how different nations encourage creativity by means of the curriculum offered in their schools. How are pupils aided to apply divergent thinking to artistic production, to inventiveness in science, to creative problem solving in the social sciences? Exemplary programs might be chosen from British schools where creative dramatics is used quite a lot, from Soviet schools where those talented in the arts attend special schools, and from the United States where pupils participate in science fairs and occasionally even in a humanities fair.

Next, the class might take a look at secondary education in selected nations. They would compare purposes, curriculum, instructional methods, and organization and administration. France, West Germany, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union would provide a rich panorama of approaches to secondary education, at least for American teachers. If the proposed course were taught in France, for example, one would insert the United States as one of the systems to be treated in detail.

From the subject of secondary education the instructor could very easily move to the topic, "External Examinations," as well as to other related topics such as technical-vocational education, the guidance function of the school, and educational differentiation or grouping. The same nations and their educational practices might be used to elaborate on each of these topics.

To point new teachers along the pathway of experimentation and research directed toward the improvement of the teaching-learning process, time should be devoted to showing how educational experimentation and research are conducted in a few countries. Certainly Sweden's Research School and national plan for educational reform should be presented. The work of the International Educational Attainment Study should be analyzed. The Storefront Schools in Black America, the School Without Walls in Philadelphia, the Free Schools in the U.S.A., the Leicestershire Plan in England, the UNESCO Model Schools in Germany, and the experimental Lycées in France might be dealt with. Each student might also explore what special king of experiments were being conducted in his own teaching field.

This assignment might also be related to the final part of the course, namely the students' research papers. Here the focus should be on a comparative study of one or another aspect of their teaching field. A student might choose to write about curriculum practices in different nations, about methodology and its psychological base, or about the philosophy of education in that field. An American teacher of health might investigate sex education in other countries since in the United States this subject is very much under public scrutiny. If he is an English teacher in an English-speaking setting, he might try to explore the teaching of literature in the mother tongue. When students share their findings with their classmates, all should advance their comprehension of the teaching-learning process. They should be able to refine their own philosophy of teaching.

A second course in comparative education which I propose focuses on the socio-political foundations of education, (see attached outline). A few sample countries should be carefully selected for detailed study. As you may note, I chose the United States, Japan, China, and Mexico. Each illustrates a distinctive configuration of socio-political goals which are reflected in the society and the educational system of each nation. A first-year graduate student and rather new teacher who takes this course should gain a comprehension of the relationship between the educational system and the society and therefore the peculiar character of his school. He should become knowledgeable enough to participate in making effective alterations in the curriculum of his school. He may also now seek to become an agent of educational and social change beyond his own classroom by becoming a school administrator, a guidance counselor, an educational journalist, a university professor, or perhaps a politician. Again, any of these occupations will be more readily attained if the individual concerned has carefully developed a responsible philosophy of teaching. The proposed course dealing with the socio-political foundations of education should serve that purpose.

Comparative and International Education for Specialist Teachers

My final proposal for the organization of courses in comparative and international education is that courses dealing with education in a particular region of the world follow sequentially those I have just laid before you. Comparative Education of Western Europe, of the Societ Union, of Latin America or Asia or Africa should be for the more advanced graduate student in education. Courses about development education and other facets of international education likewise should be geared to those who will work in a setting related to the content of these courses. Such persons must specialize in a way that is quite different from the immediate interests of the rather new classroom teacher. He is concerned with the identification of a satisfactory philosophy of teaching to guide his work inside the classroom and within his school as well as his professional career generally. For him, then, I recommend the two courses which I have described to you today.

The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers: Organization of Courses

I. Problems of teacher education

A. Pre-service (undergraduate)

1. Self-selection:	What is it like to be a teacher? Am I suited to be a teacher? a good teacher? What would I teach? and to whom?
2. General education:	One that enhances the human process skills, and also provides broad knowledge and the desire to learn more, to understand more, and to care more.
3. Educational Foundations:	Historical, philosophical, sociological, political, economic, anthropological.

Psychological--growth and development,
learning theories, research and evaluation.

4. Curriculum

5. Methods of teaching ____________________ to ________________
(Subject) (age group)

6. Philosbphy of teaching

B. In-service (M. A. level teachers)

1. Instructional problems: Pedagogical
Related to knowledge of subject matter

2. Curriculum development: Within subject specialty
Within the school

3. Socio-political foundations: Role of the school; role of the teacher; social change and the school; politics and the school.

4. Experimentation and research

5. Professional career decisions

II. Proposed courses for M.A. level teachers

A. The Teaching-Learning process in a Comparative Perspective

B. Socio-political Foundations of Education: Selected Case Studies

A

The Teaching-Learning Process in a Comparative Perspective

1. Early childhood education

2. Teaching of reading

3. Teaching a second language

4. Advances in audio-visual instruction and educational technology

5. Creativity in education

6. Secondary education

   a. External examinations

   b. Technical-vocational education

   c. Guidance function of schools

   d. Educational differentiation

7. Experimentation and research

8. Curriculum, methodology, philosophy: Student papers centering on a teaching field, using comparative analysis

B.

Socio-Political Foundations of Education:
Selected Case Studies

1. U.S. - Education and American socio-political goals

   a. Identification of socio-political goals

- (1) Historically
- (2) Contemporary

- b. Conflicting forces concerned with the determination of socio-political goals
  - (1) Demand articulators - President, political parties, constituents, educational leaders, etc.
  - (2) Decision makers - Congress, school boards, publishers, etc.
- c. Contribution of American education to the attainment of socio-political goals
  - (1) Educational measures utilized to reach goals
    - (a) Compulsory attendance laws
    - (b) Literacy and education; common curriculum gr. 1-8
    - (c) Political education
    - (d) Federal aid for educating the poor
  - (2) Instructional problems
- d. Jurisdictional disputes and other political issues
  - (1) Moral education
  - (2) Integration
  - (3) Ability grouping
  - (4) Financing of education

2. Japan - Education and Japanese socio-political goals
   - a. History; geography; economy
   - b. Postwar political and social changes
   - c. Traditional culture and educational arrangements
   - d. Education and national goals since 1945
   - e. Effectiveness of education in reinforcing current socio-political goals
3. China - Education in a Communist State
   - a. History; geography; economy
   - b. Traditional culture and educational arrangements
   - c. National goals since 1949; social and political reforms
   - d. Education today
   - e. Comparison of postwar China and Japan
4. Mexico - Education and socio-political goals in a developing nation
   - a. History, including the religious heritage
   - b. Geography; economy
   - c. Socio-political goals since the 1917 Revolution
   - d. National planning and educational needs
   - e. Education today: Progress to date, aims for the future.

COMPARATIVE AND EDUCATIONAL EDUCATION
IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Dr. Andrew F. Skinner
University of Toronto

PURPOSES

A TEACHER AND SOMETHING ELSE

Those who keep an eye on famour people and outstanding events and their dates in the past have not failed in this International Education Year to draw attention to certain centenaries of significance in the history of education. If the late I. L. Kandel were here he would certainly remind us that it is the tercentenary of the death of the great international educationist Comenius, surely one of the sources of inspiration as we study the purposes that Comparative Education can sustain in the preparation (education and training) of teachers. He was a great teacher and surely in the breadth of his sympathies and the sweep of his outlook *so very much more besides*. It is for such reason that I give my paper the sub-title--A Teacher and Something Else. In doing so I am borrowing an emphasis made by J. G. Fitch in his *Lectures on Teaching* published towards the end of the last century.

We can, of course, prepare teachers for their immediately practical purposes in much the same way as we generally have done until comparatively recent years. Why then do we wish to study and underline the importance of Comparative Education in this preparation? I submit from the outset that its significance lies in the contribution it can make to that "something else" which is more than ever required of teachers in the rapidly changing circumstances of today's shrinking world.

Before attempting to enter into closer detail, however, I must set limits to my consideration of purposes, if only in view of prescribed limitation of the length of this paper. One could hardly claim to have in mind every conceivable course in Comparative Education in every conceivable corner of the world, at every conceivable level of study, for every conceivable special interest professional or other, nor even for every category of teacher. Still what one may wish to say may have some measure of general applicability. I think it best then that I should have mainly in mind the College I know best here in Ontario in this country of Canada, a college that in one fleeting academic year seeks mainly to prepare university graduates to be High School teachers. Surprisngly to me, it is only in the last year or two that Comparative Education has been offered as an option to such students in the colleges of education in Ontario. Surprisingly I say since education in Canada throughout its history illustrates how indebted one country can be to influence and inspiration and even practices derived from other countries. The fact that Comparative Education is offered as an optional course means that not every intending teacher comes under the influence of such study. On the other hand with those who *CHOOSE* the subject, there is the opportunity to see that the best possible contribution it can make is made, always remembering, of course, that we are involved with the preparation of teachers, not with the training of comparative educationists.

I think it would be fair to say that the purposes, as well as approach and scope in a course in Comparative Education for teachers, depend on the type and maturity of students enrolling for it, and I regard it as only sensible, and not under duress at all, to consult freely with the students to take into account their initial and developing interests and to set out from there and with these in view. Comparative Education for the purposes we have in mind is ideally suited to exemplify this kind of sharing that students expect and appreciate these days and that helps determine the direction and emphases of their studies. In any case it is futile for any one person to claim to know in any *exact* way what the scope and treatment might better be, though I hasten to add that that doesn't preclude the sustaining of an appropriately *exacting* course.

Moreover, the interest of the general body of students in what goes on in education in other countries is now very great: the responsive, sympathetic idealism that many of them reflect concerning developing countries and the enormous difficulties they confront, is something impressive and something to be respected and encouraged, the desire to know how their specialist teaching-subjects are advancing and being taught or learned in other countries is natural and strong and is to be fostered. They want to compare their education, training, status and practices with those of teachers in other countries. They require little persuasion to study for purposes of comparison with another educational system, and within it, particularly the organization, problems, solutions and distinctive features of secondary education and why they are as they are. Of lesser significance but of importance to some students is an interest in travel in other countries and the possibility of exchange-teaching. It goes without saying too that their interest in processes, in schools of other countries, of discipline, counselling, examinations, indoctrination and the like is never far removed from their enquiries.

All of these reflect worthwhile interests and studies and their promotion provides the worthwhile purposes of such a course in such circumstances.

In pursuing such studies there is every chance too that students being to recognize what are the major educational problems the nations have to face and learn something of the rapidly growing trends and activities towards international influence, consultation and cooperation in seeking to resolve them. It is certainly with keen interest and sometimes astonishment that they learn for example:

about recent and current international cooperative investigations in education,

about international schools,

about centres of international studies,

about steps already taken towards establishment of international school certificates,

about international teacher-organizations, and

about some of the work of UNESCO.

Above all, the students are interested in what is current, and currently influential or determining in the social and economic context of any system studied, even if they acknowledge that some study also is required of what leads up to contemporary practices, problems and trends in education.

One can, of course, readily extend the number of purposes beyond those already indicated or implied, especially if we equate purposes with results. One result is the traditionally emphasized one of becoming "better fitted to study and understand" one's own system of education, its strengths and limitations, its aims, problems and essential growing points. It is a mistake, I find, however, to assume that students know well enough their own educational system, the system in which they are qualifying to teach. Even so it is difficult to discourage the prejudice, no doubt relatively harmless and in some circumstances pleasing, that lies in the assumption of the superiority of their own system. My students know that I claim the right to quote the plea of the internationally well known poet:

Oh wad some power the giftie gie us
Tae see oorsel's as ithars see us.

In any systematic effort to compare systems therefore the home system demands first an effective attention. While acquiring a more objective knowledge of their own system, students have a chance to reach a greater understanding and appreciation of what others are trying to do and in their different circumstances have to do. This for the intending teacher can be an enlightening process. It means that even the more systematic part of the work of the course belonging mainly in the lecture-discussion hours, has purpose in sensitizing the students' minds and improving their professional orientation and international outlook.

Are we by all this claiming too much for what is after all in the eyes of the specialist but an introduction, and is there not a fear that the treatment will be less than scholarly? I think not. What I have in mind is a quite rigorous though brief course of lecture-discussions, supplemented substantially and seriously by consultative assignments of a quite searching nature determined in consonance with the personal interests of individual students or of small groups pursuing like interests. There may thus for each student be satisfying coverage in his study without his undertaking too much, and without overmuch detail in the lecture-discussion hours.

Other purposes we have in mind are perhaps better described as hopes or hopeful expectations. Achievement in the subject is in some respects readily examinable, but the fruits of its study in the shape of those ideas, ideals and changing attitudes that are so important from an international point of view are hardly to be weighed though there may be some pleasing evidence of them. At the very least one can expect some measure of cross-fertilization of ideas, of benefit to the teacher and what he does.

There is, or can be, though this may not appeal to those who desire to promote Comparative Education as a science, an inspirational quality to be conveyed in its study, a quality that is often so very much needed if we wish to remind ourselves that education is the education of human being wherever they are and if we desire to promote in the minds of teachers and in their schools the conception of this common humanity.

Great hope must surely lie in sending out from our colleges increasing numbers of teachers who can face the now ever-insistent demands made of them with intelligence, adaptability and resourcefulness, who have some understanding of the nature and problems of a changing disturbed world and certainly whose perspectives extend beyond immediate horizons. There is the hope that some acquire what one writer described long ago as "a wide and generous outlook upon the life of the world."

What kind of teacher then does one hope to send out? James L. Henderson in his book on Education for World Understanding borrows the word "terrestrial" and gives one of his chapters the heading "The Terrestrial Teacher." This, it seems to me, presents a rather felicitous conception of what we have in mind in a paper such as this. Briefly, the terrestrial teacher is described as one who, though thoroughly well prepared and firmly rooted in his own particular context and culture, acquires an international interest and outlook, and could adjust reasonably readily and with understanding to conditions of service elsewhere.

This may be a brief paper about a brief introductory course. Nevertheless, underlying it is the recognition of an enormous and enormously important field of study. As is so often the case in the more academic studies in courses for the training of teachers, it may be difficult to convince some of our colleagues of the contribution Comparative Education can make--when I am confronted with such difficulty there invariably occurs to me a sentence used by another in an entirely different connection:

> Of course the thing itself may appear to be a small thing;
> it is the thing behind the thing that's the thing,

--that is to say what we need is not merely a teacher but a person who is "a teacher and something else."

THE USE OF AIDS IN TEACHING COMPARATIVE EDUCATION TO FUTURE TEACHERS

Margaret B. Sutherland
Queen's University
Belfast, Northern Ireland

There are three aspects of the subject which I want to consider in this paper:

(1) the advantages I should expect in using films, filmstrips, slides, examples of pupils' work, school textbooks and other documents in teaching Comparative Education:

(2) what use members of the British Section of the Comparative Education Society in Europe make of these aids and what they think of their use:

(3) questions arising from the two preceding aspects.

(1) In studying Comparative Education one of the things I find most fascinating is to realize what could be described as the differences in flavour between education in one country and education in another; it is difficult to define this 'flavour' exactly since it is an impression made up of the aims of education, explicit and implicit, the behaviour of teachers and pupils towards each other, their expectations, the whole atmosphere of schools. It is possible that this can be appreciated only by personal acquaintance with a system; but it would be unfortunate if students who have not yet had such acquaintance were to form the idea that systems similar on paper are necessarily the same in action, that school work described by the same words is necessarily the same in all countries. For this general reason, I should expect that giving students not only verbal descriptions but impressions of sight and sound, the chance to look at school books used, syllabuses and instructions to teachers, work actually produced by pupils, would at least convince them that there are differences and that these are not always conveyed by verbal statements. It seems to me also that the use of the aids mentioned has value for other aspects of education as well as for comparative studies.

Let me illustrate briefly the kind of effects I have in mind. There is firstly the value of pictures (films, film-strips, slides) in making students realise that they are talking about real children, living in conditions very different from those they themselves have experienced; thus, discussion of the problems of education in Africa does not always call up relevant pictures of the children, their way of life, their teachers' conditions of work; children on the borders of Lesotho look different, play differently; even if they have some engaging characteristics in common with children elsewhere. The picture of the 'one-teacher school' in South Africa brings home the problem of the teacher coping with over 100 pupils of all ages (she should technically have an assistant; but accidents happen). Again, looking at South African girls carrying the water-cans home can bring clearly to mind the problems of distances between home and school, and of home conditions: it can also, showing soil erosion in that area, spark off a more realistic discussion of the place of Gardening and Soil Conservation as a compulsory subject in the Bantu elementary school.

Looking at examples of children's work done in schools in other countries can have the additional advantage of making teachers reconsider the standards they accept and the goals they think worth-while in different subjects. A friend of mine recalls how, during her training as a teacher in Australia, when 'free expression' in art had been rather firmly advocated as good for children, the viewing of some beautiful though formal paintings done by Japanese school children made her wonder if, possibly, there might be other worth-while goals. If we look at examples of 'guided' drawing and colouring of patterns and shapes by Soviet kindergarten children we may have a similarly interesting discussion--possibly with reassurance by other examples of young Soviet children's work; or--looking at older children's work--we may arrive at a better understanding of realism in art education.

In more formal subjects, the sight of the Soviet school child's copy-book--its beautiful neatness, its marks of 4 and 5--can again lead to reconsideration of our own attitudes to neatness and care in work; and the part played by assessments. (I must admit that some of our students, and many older teachers, recognise here rather familiar territory; they sigh nostalgically for the days when the classroom wall was adorned with just such work). Or again, the choice of sentences to be written as practice in writing beautifully may lead to discussion of the early indoctrination of children with socially approved values.

For those students who are especially keenly interested in methods of teaching, in the practical work of the classroom more than in theoretical studies, looking at school textbooks can give some idea of classroom routine--as in the Polish book used in teaching deaf children, where we see the teacher's inspection to see if hands are clean as part of daily living in school classes for young children.

And again, for interest in method--method both of teaching subjects and of teacher-education--the lesson plans written out by Soviet student-teachers can show e.g., their approach to teaching English, the use of phonetics, and also the kind of preparation expected from those about to take a practice lesson. This can produce lively discussion especially in student-teacher groups. With all these materials and aids, discussion is easier because the students have something definite to talk about--they are not receptive only, they can analyse actively what they see and observe, they feel they are on the same footing as the teacher, to some extent. This is, of course, even more so in viewing films, which obviously I cannot demonstrate here: documents such as 'instructions to teachers' similarly give material for analysis.

These illustrations, I hope, indicate some of the contributions which aids can give to the study of Comparative Education. It seems to me too that not only may they help students to appreciate the essential qualities of other people's systems, but they are also likely to produce a more sympathetic understanding of the people who have been educated in these systems and who are working in them--a more sympathetic understanding than would result from more abstract, verbal analysis. (Though I do not by any means discount the value of books in conveying essential qualities; fiction, especially, can be extremely illuminating; as can autobiographies. There is, admittedly, sometimes a language problem here as people tend to write about their educational experiences in their own language. I shall mention such reading again, later). But generally this sympathetic understanding seems likely to contribute helpfully to international relations.

(2) I asked members of the British Section of the Comparative Education Society in Europe to complete a questionnaire indicating the use they make of such aids and their opinions of them. I received replies from 54 members who teach Comparative Education in Colleges and University Departments of Education, and from 26 members who are not at present teaching the subject; those teaching accounted for 105 courses altogether--B. Ed., College Certificate, Post-graduate Diploma, Advanced Studies: but courses differed widely in length. Among teachers and non-teachers alike there was general approval for the use of the aids mentioned; the reasons most often given for approval were the value of realism, greater accuracy, visual reinforcement, contrast between official statements and what really happens; some people also indicated the wish to capture that elusive 'flavour'. There were a few less enthusiastic comments by some half-dozen teachers in University Departments who felt that, at the higher levels especially, visual aids, textbooks, pupils' work did not add much to the course, though they still accepted the use of documents of various kinds. It was also emphasised that there are dangers in using such aids if they are out-of-date; and it was pointed out that films, etc., issued by official sources may be decidedly biased. The most popular aid was the use of documents, with school textbooks coming a close second; slides were also highly popular. Films enjoyed moderate popularity; pupils' work had a modest share of attention; film-strips were very seldom used. The reasons for frequency of use, and the popularity of the different aids are probably indicated by the sources used; for slides, pupils' work, school textbooks, the major sources were visits abroad by the teachers of Comparative Education, personal contacts in other countries. Some use was also made of material provided by Cultural Institutes or Embassies in the U.K., and by educational ministries in other countries, and occasionally by a college or university abroad. Curiously enough, though films seemed to enjoy moderate popularity, only nine were named in response to a request to name three films that members had found useful in teaching--one of these films (*The Four Teachers*) was named four times, one (*Palaces for Children*) twice. Only two film-strips were named by one member. This contrasts with the response when members were asked to name three books which they recommended as 'background' reading; 44 titles were produced (one title being given five times, two given four times, five named twice): Makarenko, Gorky and Tolstoy tended to come out top of this erratic and unrealiable popularity poll.

In reply to a question on the method which they would expect to bring about most improvement in the teaching of Comparative Education, members made considerable mention of better provision of aids (no doubt prompted by the preceding questions); especially the production of better films; a better system for retrieval of information; the provision of a resources centre or centres for use by many teachers; the production of 'jackdaw packs' of illustrative materials of the kind mentioned.

These last suggestions are important because it was clear from members' statements of reasons for not using these aids, or not using them more widely, that the major barriers were (a) lack of facilities for display--of films especially; (b) lack of time; (c) lack of knowledge of where to find these aids, lack of sources of material. Some of this last problem is probably due to the fact that the study of Comparative Education is new in many of our Colleges and many of our members are new to teaching it. Colleges too may be grudging in their allocation of time to a subject of whose merits they are not yet fully convinced. But these mentions of difficulties bring us to the problems arising.

(a) How do we improve teachers' knowledge of the available resources? Clearly by improved communication in journals--if we can get people to read them; and by conferences and other meetings. Is this enough?

(b) Should we also provide resources centres of the kind which various people think they would like; central libraries to send out books, films, materials of various kinds? Or do we continue to rely on private initiative and the good offices of various Embassies and other authorities--who may, possibly, become rather weary as the demand for their 'hand-outs' increases?

(c) Would the development of 'jackdaw kits' be beneficial? May teachers clearly do build up their own; but they can't do it for every country--should it be possible therefore to send for supplies of kits dealing with countries as yet unvisited? This might have some merits; though one feels that in some ways the authenticity of some of the material would be lost--the copy-book actually picked up in a class room abroad by someone who knows, is different from the impersonal example, mass-produced, or at least mass-provided.

(d) Is VTR the answer? If we can more and more frequently exchange tapes of actual lessons, study groups, study activities in schools of different countries, this should give very useful material to work on (though by no means all our Colleges and Universities have as yet the necessary equipment). One might also feel some concern as to how natural the recorded situation would be; and ultimately some concern as to whether these exchanges might in time lessen the characteristic differences of approach.

(e) In all this, can we be sure that these aids do have the effects we hope for? Subjectively, I am sure some of them do produce lively discussion and apparent interest: but objectively controlled research evicence would be useful.

(f) Finally, we must note that the proposal most often made for improvement of teaching Comparative Education was more visits to other countries, more contacts with teachers working in other systems. As various people pointed out, this would require more time and money--even more than the other aids would require; can we find the time and money? Possibly someone can produce an answer to this final problem.

Biography

Margaret B. Sutherland, M.A., M.Ed., Ph.D., Senior Lecturer in Education, Queen's University, Belfast, Northern Ireland. Before going to teach Education in Queen's, was a teacher of French and German in Senior Secondary Schools, Glasgow; also taught Education for eighteen months (1962-63) in Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa. Chairman of the British Section of the Comparative Education Society in Europe; other activities relevant to Comparative Education include service as a member of the N. Ireland Unesco Committee and as Vice-Chairman of the N. Ireland Advisory Council for Education. Interested in Comparative Educational Sociology; and in probably too many educational systems in Europe and Africa.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS:

SINGAPORE AND HONG KONG

Cho-Yee To
School of Education
The University of Michigan

I

The Prime Minister of Singapore, Mr. Lee Kuan Yew, recently delivered a speech entitled "Hong Kong and Singapore--A Tale of Two Cities."[1] In the address he optimistically viewed the prospects of Singapore and Hong Kong, the two great international cities in Asia. He elaborated on the similarities between these two cities, namely, their origin as island colonies founded over a hundred years ago for trade; the British features in their judicial and administrative systems; their multi-ethnic background, and their predominantly Chinese population; their refugee problems; their urbanized centers with high population densities; their recent industrial and economic growth, etc. Prime Minister Lee was proud of the superior achievements of the two cities in their economic development, as compared with other developing areas in Asia,[2] and attributed their success mainly to their educational systems. According to Lee, both systems have been flexible enough to change "in response to . . . new demands for economic progress."[3] He believed that by incorporating the best elements of the old and the new, of East and West, in their educational systems, the two cities will be able to progress more rapidly, and that as pioneers in modernization, the two cities "can act as catalysts to accelerate the transforming of traditional societies around them."[4]

Several points in the Prime Minister's address are of special interest to students of comparative and international education: the unique cultural background and political-economic situations of Hong Kong and Singapore; the important role of education in the process of modernization and nation-building in developing areas; and the implication that a society can benefit from intelligent educational borrowing and cultural exchange.

Prime Minister Lee's "tale of two cities," is not without biases and exaggerations, however.[5] A misleading characteristic of his speech is that while he proposes to discuss the two cities, he focuses only on their similarities, completely ignoring their differences. Even the fact that Singapore became self-governing in 1955 and has been an independent, sovereign nation since 1965, whereas Hong Kong is still a British colony, is not mentioned. This fundamental political distinction between the two cities has been and will continue to be the main reason for their basic educational differences, which have rarely been observed. This paper will discuss the educational differences between Singapore and Hong Kong, using as an illustration the comparative education studies in the teacher training programs of the two cities.

II

To a certain extent, the educational systems of Singapore and Hong Kong have been responsive to the new demands for economic progress, as Prime Minister Lee indicated. Recent emphases of both governments on technical and industrial education can be cited as evidence.[6] Surface observations of other features of the schools in the two cities suggest more similarities between the two systems. For instance, their organization, administration, curricula, instruction and examinations were originally modelled after the British system, and they still are heavily dependent upon their model, particularly the Hong Kong system.[7] In the past two decades, both governments placed a high priority in their budgets on the expansion of educational opportunities for the mass.[8] Also, the professional education programs for teachers in Singapore and Hong Kong are similarly classified and, like the British, are undertaken dualistically: at the higher level, there are university departments of education for the training of graduates; at the lower level, there are teacher training colleges, or colleges of education, for non-graduate prospective teachers.[9]

A more careful examination, however, will reveal behind these similarities basic distinctions between the two systems of education. Since her independence, Singapore has been developing steadily her national character. Although British flavor is still strong, Singapore's political autonomy has generated greater flexibility for educational changes and reforms. Despite the value of the English language in international trade, commerce and industry, the people of Singapore chose Malay as their national language on the grounds of its importance in Southeast Asia. Contrarily, in Hong Kong, even though ninety-nine per cent of the population are Chinese-speaking, English is still the only official language.[10] The history of Singapore shows that with self-government in 1955 came innovative actions initiated by the Ministry of Education, which had just been converted from the colonial Department of Education.[11] As a colony, Hong Kong's vast system of education is led by the Director of Education, the British official appointed by the governor, also a Briton, who is directed by the Colonial Secretary in London. Although tremendous efforts have been made by both governments to promote popular education, the degrees of financial commitment are different: in Singapore, the average government expenditure on education is 21.4%; in Hong Kong, it is only 14%.[12]

It is noteworthy that, unlike Hong Kong, Singapore (1) publishes official statements on the aims of education in general, and the aims of teacher education in particular; and (2) emphasizes the study of comparative education in teacher education. Deliberately spelled out and publicized, the three-fold national goal of education in Singapore includes: first, the development of the potentialities of every child and the cultivation of loyalty to the Republic; second, the promotion of the ideal of democracy in the multi-racial and multi-lingual society; third, the propagation of the necessary knowledge and skills for economic development and social change.[13]

In Singapore, the cultural, political and economic roles of education are clear. As a new nation with proud people, Singapore is most eager to establish her national identity. Teachers and prospective teachers are asked to devote themselves to the nation-building cause. The pledge of the Teachers' Training College, the government institution for teacher education, reads:

> We solemnly dedicate ourselves to the sacred task of nation-building by fostering the intellectual, physical, moral and social growth of every new generation. This we pledge in co-operation with all members of the profession in the spirit of brotherhood and progress in education.[14]

But in Hong Kong, the official goal of education has never been elaborated on. Official publications on education are usually descriptive and explanatory, and only one out of the three colleges of education there states its aims for teacher training in its prospectus:

> The aims of the College are as follow: (a) To give a sound professional training. (b) To improve the student's academic standard. (c) To instill a sense of vocation. (d) To help the development of personality and the widening of interests on the broadest possible basis.[15]

The different degrees of deliberation on educational goals of the two cities reveal the relation of a government's political state to its educational policies. Politically identified with the United Kingdom, the Colony of Hong Kong does not need nationalism, and hence an educational goal of nation-building, as does Singapore. The unmanifested but practical purpose of education in Hong Kong is to meet the basic needs for education of its residents, and to provide efficiently yet economically sufficient trained manpower for commercial and industrial growth, so that the stability of the society can be maintained and the political status quo guaranteed.

In Singapore, the supreme goal of education is to build a prosperous, democratic and genuinely independent nation out of limited natural resources, within a competitive Southeast Asia. Realizing that the process of modernization involves constant acquisition of new ideas and techniques, and that national survival requires adequate knowledge about this changing world, educators as well as government officials in Singapore have been ardent in seeking international cooperation and exchange[16] and in promoting international studies. Their effort is particularly reflected in the inclusion of the study of comparative education in all of their teacher education programs.

III

The study of comparative education includes two courses, "Education in Singapore and Malaysia" and "Comparative Education," and is provided for students in the non-graduate Certificate in Education programs as well as for those in the post-graduate Diploma in Education programs.[17] The non-graduate programs, administered by the Teachers' Training College, admit students who hold the School Certificate (equivalent to the tenth grade) or the Higher School Certificate (equivalent to the twelfth grade). Lasting either two years full-time or three years part-time, these programs are for the training of primary school teachers and secondary teachers of the lower grades. The post-graduate programs take either one year full-time or two years part-time for completion, and are sponsored jointly by the University of Singapore and the Teachers' Training College. For the training of secondary teachers of the higher grades, these programs admit only university graduates who hold acceptable degrees. All prospective teachers in Singapore are required to take the course "Education in Singapore and Malaysia," which emphasizes the "comparison of contemporary policies and set-ups" in the two neighboring countries.[18] The "Comparative Education" course is divided into two sections, one for non-graduates and one for post-graduates. Both sections have ambitious syllabuses, which cover discussions on objectives, methodology, forces and factors, and area studies.[19] At the University of Singapore, graduate students can select research topics of comparative nature for their Master's or Doctor's theses.[20]

In Hong Kong, the two year post-secondary teacher training programs in the three colleges of education are similar to one another. In terms of admission requirements and professional level, these programs are the counterparts of the non-graduate Certificate in Education programs in the Teachers' Training College of Singapore. But none of these colleges provide any course in comparative education as such. The only information of comparative interest may be the several descriptive lectures on the educational systems in Hong Kong and the United Kingdom, which are part of the compulsory subject entitled "Education" or "Education and Psychology."[21] In the Department of Education in the University of Hong Kong, the post-graduate diploma program[22] offers the course "Education Systems." This course consists of (1) the English educational system, and (2) education in Hong Kong.[23] Obviously, its contents are not as broad as its title may imply. At the Master's degree level, students interested in comparative education can pursue studies in the field. The work is largely guided reading combined with essays and tutorials.[24]

In general, the teacher training programs in Hong Kong emphasize teaching methods and knowledge of subject matter, rather than educational ideas and ideals, as is illustrated by the aims of the college of education quoted previously. In the Colony, the function of the teacher education programs is to produce teachers who possess the skills of instruction and are efficient in performing their assigned duties.[25] Since the governmental policy on education is directly controlled by the British authority, knowledge about educational ideas and systems in other parts of the world, apart from Great Britain, has not been considered important.

The reasons for Singapore's unusual emphasis[26] on the study of comparative education are partly cultural and partly utilitarian. The people of Singapore are perhaps the most multi-racial in Southeast Asia, and are comparatively well-educated. Their desire to know and to compare is understandable. Also, for a developing nation that is also an international port, the study of comparative education is an indispensable source of new ideas, experiments, and practices; its instrumental value is particularly great for educational planners and administrators. Educational borrowing is a necessity for a country of limited resources and manpower. As long as Singapore tries to compete economically with the advanced countries, as Prime Minister Lee advocates,[27] comparative education will continue to be an important part of the teacher education programs.

In the case of Singapore and Hong Kong, despite their historical, geographical and socio-economic resemblances, it is their unique political states that decide the role of education in their societies. This survey of the different standings of comparative education in the two educational systems reveals the educational needs as well as the biases of the two territories. Further study on the present topic would unfold a more accurate and complete "Tale of Two Cities."

NOTES

[1] Lee Kuan Yew spoke at the Seventy-fifth Congreation of the University of Hong Kong, February 19, 1970, when he was conferred an honorary degree of Doctor of Laws. The text of his speech was published in the *University of Hong Kong Gazette*, XVII, No. 4 (February, 1970), 50-53.

[2] The GNP per capita of Singapore and of Hong Kong are the highest, after that of Japan, in Asia. *Ibid.*, 54.

[3] *Ibid.*, 52.

[4] *Ibid.*, 53.

[5] The conservative and even the moderate would not agree with Lee's strong plea that Singapore change into a "mass-consumption technological society." (*Ibid.*, 51). His statement that "the Chinese script . . . was developed for a scholarly elite, designed to leave ordinary people illiterate and in awe of the mandarins" (*ibid.*,) reflects an ignorance of philology in general and Chinese etymology in particular. His assertion that "today, both in Hong Kong and Singapore, no one is without primary schooling" (*ibid.*, 52) is inaccurate especially in regards to Hong Kong.

[6] In Hong Kong, the Technical College, which has been growing constantly in the past decade, is presently being reorganized and further expanded. In Singapore, technical and vocational programs at secondary, post-secondary and teacher-training levels have also been developing rapidly, with the enthusiastic support of the government. See *150 Years of Education in Singapore*, ed. T. R. Doraisamy (Singapore: Teachers' Training College Publications Board, 1969), pp. 62-63, 73-75.

[7] Space limitation does not permit this paper to discuss this subject in detail. For a description of the Singapore system, see *ibid.*; for that of the Hong Kong system, see *Hong Kong Education Department Annual Summary*, 1968-69 (Hong Kong: Director of Education, 1969).

[8] Their effects were highlighted by the Seven-Year Expansion Program of Hong Kong (1954-1961) and the First Five-Year Plan of Singapore (1961-1965). For statistics, see *Hong Kong Education Department Annual Summary*, 1962-63 (Hong Kong: The Government Printer, 1963), p. 42, and *150 Years of Education in Singapore*, p. 67.

[9] In Singapore, there are the University of Singapore, an English-speaking university, and Nanyang University, a Chinese-speaking university. The former has a school of education, which has close ties with the Teachers' Training College, the only but big (over 5,000 enrollment) training college in Singapore. The Department of Education of Nanyang University closed a few years ago. In Hong Kong, the University of Hong Kong, an English-speaking university, has a Department of Education, and the Chinese University, the second university in the Colony, which is Chinese-speaking, has a small School of Education (with only four full-time lecturers and fifteen full-time students in 1968-69). There are three training college type institutions, now called "colleges of education," named after three former governors: Northcote, Grantham and Black.

[10] English still remains one of the four official languages in Singapore. The other three are: Chinese, Tamil and Malay. In Hong Kong, there has been in the past several years a movement to make Chinese a second official language. But no result has been achieved.

[11] *150 Years of Education in Singapore*, pp. 56-58.

[12] R. F. Simpson, *Economic Growth and Educational Resources* (Hong Kong: The Hong Kong Council for Educational Research, 1968), p. 9.

[13] The following is an excerpt from the Singapore government's contribution to UNESCO's *World Survey of Education*, Vol. V, as quoted in *150 Years of Education in Singapore*, p. 59.

> The main aim of education in Singapore is to develop the potentialities of every child physically, mentally and morally to the fullest extent possible in accord with the needs and interests of society by ensuring the optimum acquisition of experience, knowledge and skill, each according to his intelligence, ability, aptitude and interest. In the context of Singapore today, this entails the inculcation of sound

> habits, values and attitudes which would lead to the development of creativity and loyalty to the Republic, the instilling of the love of freedom, truth and justice with respect for fundamental human rights, appreciation of racial and religious tolerance and acceptance of the democratic way of life; and the propagation of the necessary knowledge and skills needed to carry out the successive stages of economic development; the preparation for changes in society.
>
> To attain these objectives it is necessary to provide every child with at least ten years of education from the age of six without discrimination on account of race, language, sex, wealth or status; ensure equal opportunity for higher education among the Republic's multi-racial and multi-lingual people through a system of education which promotes the study of two official languages by all pupils; and lay particular emphasis on technical and vocational education to promote economic development and create wider employment opportunities.

[14] This pledge is prominently printed in Malay, Chinese, Tamil and English in the inner cover of the 1969 *Bulletin* of the College.

[15] Northcote College of Education Students' Handbook 1969-70 (Hong Kong: Northcote College of Education, 1969), p. 1.

[16] For instance, through the Colombo Plan, Fulbright, Aid to Commonwealth English, UNESCO, United Kingdom Overseas Development Ministry, etc.

[17] At these two levels, there are totally thirteen types of teacher training courses to meet the needs of different language groups. See *Bulletin* (Singapore: Teachers' Training College, 1969), p. 5.

[18] "Course Structure: Diploma in Education Course for University Graduates," mimeographed copy, [1969]. Teachers' Training College, Singapore, p. 3.

[19] Descriptions of the two Comparative Education sections, obtained through correspondence from the School of Education, University of Singapore, are as follow:

> *Non-graduate Certificate in Education*: Objectives and Methodology. Factors that determine character of a national system of education. Problems of educational reconstruction. Aims and functions of UNESCO in Southeast Asia. Curriculum trends and teacher education problems in Southeast Asia. Education in Singapore and Malaysia: political, social and economic changes affecting educational policy; education reports. Education in U.S.S.R., India and Japan: school organization and curriculum; language problem; national identity; industrialization and economic development; school administration and financing.
>
> *Post-graduate Diploma in Education*: Definitions and Objectives of Comparative Education. The different comparative approaches, e.g., the descriptive, statistical, historical, sociological and problematic approaches. Illustrative examples of each approach. A study of the following comparative terms: politics and education; economics and education; administration and control of education; curriculum and evaluation; higher education. Some national case studies, e.g., secondary education, teacher education, liberal and vocational training, indoctrination in schools.

Currently, both levels are taught by lecturers who were trained in the London Institute of Education. It is easily noted that the above syllabuses resemble respectively the outlines of Nicholas Hans' *Comparative Education: A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1949), and Brian Holmes' *Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965).

[20] Course work on comparative education is offered only at the Master of Education level. Doctoral candidates do not have course work.

[21] See the course description of "Education and Psychology" in *Sir Robert Black College of Education General Information* (Hong Kong: Sir Robert Black College of Education, 1969), p. 7.

[22] The professional teacher training for university graduates in Hong Kong is either one year full-time or two years part-time.

[23] *Students' Handbook* (for education students) (Hong Kong: The University of Hong Kong, 1969), p. 10.

[24] The number of advanced students in education at the University of Hong Kong is small. [There were seven candidates for the M.A. Ed. degree in 1969. See the *University of Hong Kong Gazette*, XVII, No. 3 (February, 1970), p. 38.] Hence, work in comparative education can be partly geared to individual interests. Works that have been used include: G. Z. F. Bereday's *Comparative Method in Education* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964); I. L. Kandel's *The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study* (Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955); N. Hans' *Comparative Education: A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1949); and B. Holmes' *Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965).

[25] The pledge of the students of Sir Robert Black College of Education reads as follows: "I will (1) devote all my time to my studies at the college, (2) at all times respect all officers and lecturers of the College, (3) observe College regulations and (4) uphold the good name of the College." Quoted from the "Form of Undertaking to be signed by a Successful Applicant," provided for the students by the College.

[26] Singapore's emphasis on the study of comparative education can be said to be "unusual" in view of the fact that comparative education is not a requirement for the Teaching Certificate in most American colleges and universities.

[27] Lee Kuan Yew, "Hong Kong and Singapore--A Tale of Two Cities," 52.

THE INTERNATIONAL AND COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN THE TRAINING AND THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING SYSTEM FOR THE TEACHERS IN ROMANIA

George Vaideanu, Ph.D.,
University of Jassy,
Director of the Institute of Pedagogical Sciences
Bucharest, Romania

Vasile Iliescu,
Head of the Department of Comparative Education
of the Institute of Pedagogical Sciences

We think it necessary to specify, from the beginning, that in Romania there exists an in-service training system for teachers, within the Universities in which they are trained, set up in 1954. Thus, the in-service training of the teachers became a systematic, generalized and compulsory activity, being entrusted to specialized institutes named Institutes for Teachers' In-Service Training.

The training and the in-service training of the teaching staff is therefore framed in this vast scope of the continuing education of the dynamic personality, and is animated by a superior social and moral ideal and also by the high conceptions of friendship and cooperation among peoples.

We are persuaded that the actual renewal of school and education is not feasible without a profound renewal of the spirit and content of the teachers' training and in-service training activity. If for the school this renovation signifies an institutional transformation of its organization, content, methods and means, for the teaching staff it aims at changing the relations both with the universe of culture and values and with the students. The idea of education for international understanding is highly considered in Romania, which was recommended by Unesco too, in 1968.

The place granted to the international and comparative education within the system of training and in-service training of the teaching staff is determined by Romania's policy from whose initiative the U.N.O. adopted, in 1965, the Declaration concerning the promoting among the young people of the ideals of peace, mutual respect and cooperation among peoples. It is obvious that in promoting these high ideals an important role is played by the school and the teaching staff. Viewing this aim, during their training, the future teachers have the possibility to get acquainted with the realities of other countries. The future teachers of education attend in their last school year a course of comparative education, this being only a beginning. All courses about general education, delivered to the students --future teachers--are concerned with the characteristics of education in other countries, with the UNESCO recommendations regarding education and its social-political functions.

While still students the future teachers have various opportunities to come into direct group or individual contact with the students from other countries: foreign students attending courses of Romanian Universities and Romanian students studying abroad; international students camps; international sports contests; tourism for young people, etc.

1. The whole development and organization of the teachers' in-service training is based on the principle that each activity should be accomplished with a maximum competence. In order to achieve this aim, the scientific information (further training in a particular discipline) of the teachers is incumbent upon the universities, conservatories, and teachers' colleges, while the scientific information courses for primary-school and nursery-school teachers are organized by the three-years institutes of education. Thus, those who train the future teachers are further engaged in the in-service training in their particular discipline.

2. A second characteristic feature is the foundation of a central in-service training and specialization Institute, with a view to the establishment of a unitary in-service training system, therefore aiming at the coordination and guidance of this wide-scale activity. Thus, all the factors engaged in the in-service training will benefit from a unitary guidance, and the adequate content, forms and methods of this activity will constitute a coherent system.

3. Being a necessary and permanent activity, the further training is, by law, a duty of honour for the teaching staff, which are given the opportunity of attending courses in their respective discipline, summer courses which for the teachers of foreign languages are delivered by foreign specialists, purposely invited; of participating to educational, applicative demonstrations, to travel abroad for their specialization; to join international exchange of teachers; to specialize abroad. All the teachers having less than 25 years of service are obliged to attend periodically scientific information courses. The state considers that the educational-cultural level of the educators is decisive for the efficiency of school and education and therefore it offers in-service training facilities and, at the same time, its experts check-up the results.

4. The in-service training system is a stimulating one because the acquirement of a grade by a teacher is accompanied by an increase in his salary (a bigger increase is stipulated for the future).

   The stimulating character of the in-service training courses must also be looked for in the cultural environment created in such occasions. As a rule, the courses take place in the big universitary centers, being associated with cultural and artistical activities, trips and shows. Also the teaching staff have the right to join national and international scientific societies, to participate in congresses, conferences or other cultural and scientific manifestations at home or abroad.

5. By the forms and methods used, the in-service training is differentiated in terms of teachers' age and experience, of the specific character of the discipline and in terms of the aim envisaged. For the stimulation of the participants' interest, and for increasing their receptivity, the tone and the atmosphere of the activities are extremely important. Experience convinced us that we cannot use the same methods for the in-service training of teachers as for the training of students; and the danger of prolongation of the school and university forms and methods is real and we must fight it.

6. The in-service training is a continuing and systematic activity, the individual further training (self-further training) being the basis for the group in-service training. The highest result of this activity lies in the spiritual enlivening of the teaching staff, in the determination of an increase of their receptivity for the demands of the age and for the progress of science. The in-service training should develop in the ever renewed light of the requirements of the future towards society and teachers, looked upon as the main modelling agents of the growing generations.

From everything mentioned above, the conclusion can be reached that the in-service training system involves institutionalized forms specific for the further-training of teachers, forms that contribute, not only to the teachers' in-service training, but also to the training of experts from other fields of activity and institutionalized forms concerning the continuing education of the great mass of citizens.

To the first group belong the educational bodies and institutions: the schools, the districtual school authorities, the three-years teachers' colleges, the universities, the institutes for teachers' in-service training, the institute of educational sciences; their area of activity is the general culture and professional level (that is the respective subject-matter, educational-psychological, applicative-methodical level).

The second group comprises the professional associations and societies, the departmental research institutes and those of the Academy; they act mainly towards the "discipline" (informating about the progress achieved in the respective field).

The third group refers to motion-pictures, radio, television, libraries, people's universities and so on; they contribute mainly to the strengthening of the general-culture formation.

Just as teacher's training and even more, teachers' in-service training requires today a superior material and moral treatment. If we admit that the school and universitary investments are extremely profitable, we are obliged to admit that those oriented towards the in-service training of the teaching staff, the educational agents,--are as necessary and profitable. That is why it is necessary to encourage and support the international educational relations and exchanges which are indispensable in the training in-service training of the teachers.

La place de l'éducation comparée et internationale dans la préparation des maîtres

Alexandre Vexliard,
Professeur à la Faculté des Lettres,
Université d'Ankara

Organisation des cours

1. L'organisation des cours d'éducation comparée (et internationale) à l'intention des futurs enseignants aux niveaux élémentaire et secondaire a été envisagée par de nombreux auteurs, qui se plaçaient à différents points de vue, comme à divers niveaux et perspectives. On trouvera des données sur ce thème: dans les ouvrages fondamentaux de Schneider (1961), Hilker (1962, 1966), G. Bereday (1964), ainsi que dans recueils d'articles présentés lors des premières "Conférences annuelles", de la Société Américaine d'E.C., publiés sous la direction de W. W. Brickman (1954, 1955, 1958). De nombreux articles ont paru sur ce sujet dans des revues, notamment dans: *C. E. Review* (N.Y.), dans la *Revue Internationale de Pédagogie*. (Hambourg) ('). Ces communications et articles traîtent de notre probléme à différents points de vue: administratif (programmes, horaires), pédagogique (méthodes, didactique), idéologique, etc.

2. Nous nous plaçons ici au point de vue de l'instructeur, qui doit enseigner l'Education internationale et comparée (EIC), aux futurs enseignants *qui ne sont pas spécialisés*. Cela signifie que l'on pourra consacrer à cet enseignement, en tout, de 20 à 60 heures de cours et si possible de 20 à 60 heures de séminaires ou colloques, ainsi que de courts voyages à l'étranger. En général ces voyages ne sont prévus que pour les professeurs des langues vivantes. Mais notre enseignement accompagne celui de toutes les disciplines.

3. Nous pensons que cet enseignement doit avoir *une structure* nettement définie. Cette exigence n'est pas particulière à l'enseignement de I'EIC, mais nous tâcherons de montrer ce que cela signifie dans notre discipline. Un enseignement structuré, fait ressortir dans ses diverses phases: (a) son *unité*; (b) la *différenciation* de ses éléments (fonctions ou sous-structures); (c) une hiérarchie entre les éléments. Ces trois conditions permettront d'éveiller la curiosité, l'intérêt pour notre sujet et entraîner la coopération des étudiants.

4. Nous estimons que dans cette perspective, l'éducation internationale est directement liée à l'enseignement de l'éducation comparée: ces deux sont intégrés. Il convient de rappeler aussi que l'éducation internationale est "partie intégrante" des divers programmes d'enseignement (BIE-UNESCO, Paris, 1968, UNESCO, Hambourg, dates diverses). Certains chapitres de l'éducation comparée, surtout ceux consacrés aux organismes internationaux, sont propices à l'introduction de l'éducation internationale.

5. La structure du cours devrait comprendre quatre étapes, stades ou degrés, il est entendu qu'une étape une fois franchie, est nécessairement poursuivie, complétée aux étapes ultérieures. Nous résumons ces quatre stades par quatre mots-clefs, en nous plaçant au point de vue de l'étudiant, qui doit: (a) *apprendre*, (b) *comprendre*, (c) *découvrir*, (d) *inventer*.

6. Ces quatre étapes correspondent sensiblement, d'une part aux quatre phases de la recherche décrits par Hilker et Bereday et d'autre part aux quatre niveaux de l'enseignement: primaire, secondaire, supérieur et "post-graduate". Certes les deux derniers stades intéressent surtout les étudiants spécialisés dans notre discipline, les futurs chercheurs; mais il est possible de donner une introduction à ces niveaux dans un enseignement plus

---

(')On trouvera à la fin de cet article une bibliographie condensée. Les noms des auteurs et de quelques revues sont donné par ordre alphabétique.

général. C'est à cette condition que la compréhension sera acquise. Ce qui est dit ici peut paraître banal; de plus ce genre d'organisation peut s'appliquer à bon nombre d'autres matières. Ce n'est que par l'examen de quelques détails que l'on s'apercevra des particularités de la méthode, surtout dans ses applicantions à l'E.C. Nous passerons en revue les quatre étapes de l'enseignement, en insistant sur la compréhension, qui est la plaque tournante du systéme (un peu comme l'enseignement secondaire peut être considéré comme la base de tout système éducatif).

7. APPRENDRE, c'est acquérir des informations, des connaissances descriptives concernant quelques systèmes d'éducation à l'étranger. Il s'agit de faits sélectionnés, tant par les pays choisis, que par les traits particuliers que l'on met en relief. Les deux ordres de faits sont choisis de manière à ce qu'on puisse montrer dès l'abord des ressemblances et des différences apparemment superficielles. Mais il ne faut pas croire que pour les étudiants ce sont là des données "brutes". Les données brutes n'existent que rarement. Malgré lui, l'étudiant les interprétera, et il sera difficile lors des phases ultérieures de le débarrasser de ses préconceptions, pour ne pas dire de ses préjugés. Notons que dès cette phase élémentaire, on se heurte à un écueil qui est signalé par tous les comparatistes: la méconnaissance des langues étrangères et par richochet, la confusion qui règne dans les terminologies.

8. COMPRENDRE, pour l'étudiant, a pour contrepartie, le terme EXPLIQUER du côté de l'instructeur. C'est l'étape la plus importante et la plus difficile pour l'instructeur; aussi, bien souvent, il la laisse à l'initiative de l'étudiant. Mais à ce stade l'étudiant n'a ni le temps ni les capacités nécessaires pour atteindre ce but. C'est à l'instructeur de lui montrer qu'il existe plusieurs manières pour accéder à la compréhension des faits.

9. Comprendre, c'est établir des liens de dépendance et d'interaction entre les faits (ou le défaut de ces liens dénotant des dysfonctions); pour établir ces liens on examine les faits à la lumiére de concepts généraux, qui constituent le trosième terme des comparaisons (R. Ulich). Il convient de montrer aussi que les liaisons ne sont pas toujours linéaires, univoques, univalentes. Une liaison établie dans un pays A, n'est pas nécessairement de la même nature dans un pays B, bien qu'en principe cela soit plausible.

10. Le choix des concepts généraux dans les explications, dépend tant du niveau de l'enseignement que du but que l'on poursuit et tout particulièrement du genre de faits que l'on analyse ou compare. Ce choix guide les démonstrations; en général, partout où cela est possible on a intérêt à s'appuyer sur une classification (des systèmes éducatifs, ou de certains de leurs aspects), qui, elle même repose sur une typologie. Classifications et typologies n'ont rien d'absolu. Ce sont des supports, des béquilles, que l'on peut abandonner lorsqu'on n'en éprouve plus le besoin.

11. La compréhension d'un système éducatif sera mieux acquise, lorsqu'on aura dégagé trois de ses aspects: (a) le genre et le degré de différenciation interne; (b) le genre et le degré de hiérarchisation de ses principaux éléments; et, (c) mise à jour les buts essentiels de cette diversification particulière (Core of the system, Triebkräfte). Ces trois données concernent la structure interne du système, mais cette dernière est un élément de la structure sociale globale. Il s'agit de voir quels sont les rôles et les fonctions de l'éducation dans la structure globale de la société; éventuellement, quel rôle elle joue dans la transformation de la structure sociale, en particulier dans les promotions, les démotions, la mobilité horizontale. Montrer ensuite que, tant dans les analyses des systèmes que dans les comparaisons, les dissonnances, les contradictions, les dysfonctions, posent certes des problèmes; ces difficultés peuvent être paralysantes, mais dans bon nombre de situation--surtout de nos jours,--elles exercent une action dynamisante: c'est un cas particulier du fameux "défi" de Toynbee.

12. LA DECOUVERTE suppose des connaissances étendues et une compréhension approfondie des faits; c'est ce qui permet la mise à jour de liaisons et d'interactions non encore perçues ou mal interprétées. Nous dépassons là en principe le niveau de notre enseignement. Mais la découverte peut être vue comme un exercice de compréhension. Dans la majorité des cas l'exercice consiste à situer les faits dans un ensemble de liaisons observables, en particulier dans leur contexte hiérarchique.

13. L'INVENTION, dans notre domaine, tendra à proposer des remèdes à des situations qui paraissent en exiger; ou bien à proposer des mesures adéquates pour atteindre un nouveau but. On a souvent noté dans le domaine des réformes de l'éducation, qu'une mesure raisonnable prise dans un secteur peut entraîner de graves inconvénients dans d'autres secteurs. C'est d'ailleurs l'une des raisons essentielles des réformes "en chaîne", auxquelles nous assistons. La véeritable invention,--relativement rare,--résulte d'une vision des faits, simultanément, dans deux ou plusieurs perspectives différentes, à deux

ou plusieurs niveaux des hiérarchies multiples, ce qui permet de tenir compte des interactions qui ne sont pas perceptibles à priori. Ainsi, le planificateur de l'éducation ignore les préoccupations du maître dans sa classe, et c'est pourtant à ce dernier qu'aboutissent les mesures prises par le plan. Au niveau où nous nous plaçons, nous ne pouvons guère nous étendre sur ces deux derniers points. Soulignons toutefois que tout enseignement digne de ce nom comporte nécessairement une grande part d'invention, et il est d'autant plus f'cond que le monologue se transforme en dialogue.

BIBLIOGRAPHIE CONDENSEE

ORGANISATION DES COURS D'E.C.I.

Ouvrages:

BEREDAY, G.Z.F. Comparative Method in Education. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, N.Y. 1964. p. 171-197.

HILKER, F. Vergleichende Pädeagogik. Max Hueber Vlg. München, 1962, p. 139-160. Tr. fr. Pédagogie comparée. (édit. abrégée), Institut pédagogique national, SEVPEN, Paris, 1964. p. 99-106.

SCHNEIDER, F. Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft. Quelle und Meyer. 1961. p. 133-153.

Congrés, Colloques, etc.

Annual Conferences on Comparative Education (New-York) Sous la direction de W. W. BRICKMAN.

1 t. 1954. The role of comparative education in the education of Teachers. Communications de: W. W. BRICKMAN, R. Ulich.

2nd. 1955. The Teaching of Comparative Education. Articles de: BRICKMAN, R. K. Hall, L. B. Sands, A. Paplauskas-Ramunas, G. Read.

4th. C. E. and foreign educational service, 1957. Communication de D. J. Towksbury.

5th. Teaching about Soviet Education, 1958. Articles de: W. W. Brickman, G. Read, J. R. Burnett, I. D. London, Th. Woody.

International Conference on Educational Research. Proceedings, P/214. Tokyo, 1959. Articles de J. A. Lauwerys, P/208 G. H. Read.

Premier congrès international de l'enseignement universitaire des sciences pédagogiques. Gand, 1953. B. L. Plancke, R. Verbist.

Revues:

Comparative Education Review

No I/I Deux articles de G. Bereday (1957). - No II/I, 1958, R. E. Belding, p. 31-32. - No 1/3, 1958: G. Bereday, p. 4-9. - No III/I, 1959, E. J. King, p. 33-36. - III/2, 1959, A. Scarangello, p. 24-27. VI/I, 1962, J. Katz, p. 12-15.

Revue Internationale de pédagogie (Hambourg); Internat. Rev. of Education. (Salzburg) 6/I, 1950, art. de T. L. Jarman. p. 9-11.
(Hambourg) II/I, 1956, I. L. Kandel. p. 13.

Unesco-Hambourg
Série d'études collectives ou individuelles, concernant l'éducation pour la compréhension internationale (10 études parues).

B. I. E. - Unesco, Genéve, Paris: L'Education pour la compréhension Internationale (en tant que partie intégrante des programmes scolaires). 1968.

FIRST WORLD CONGRESS OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION SOCIETIES

PREMIER CONGRES MONDIAL DES SOCIETES D'EDUCATION COMPAREE

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION YEAR--ANNEE DE L'EDUCATION INTERNATIONALE

Registration List - Liste des Inscriptions

ADAMS, A. Elizabeth, U.K.
General Inspector of Education (Ret.)
29 Woodside House,
London, S. W. 19, England

ALTENA, Juul v.R., U.S.A.
Associate Professor of Comparative Education (Ret.)
168 Main Street,
New Paltz, N.Y. 12561, U.S.A.

ANGUS, James Thomas, CAN.
Dean of Education,
Lakehead University,
Postal Station "P",
Thunder Bay, Ontario

ANWEILER, Dr. Oskar, GERMANY
Professor and Director,
The Institute of Education,
Ruhr-Universitat Bochum, Germany

BAKARI, Shehu Usman, NIGERIA
Advisor Post Secondary Education,
Bureau for External Aid for Education,
P.M.B. 12013,
Lagos, Nigeria

BEAUCHAMP, Sr. Lucie, CAN.
Principal of Integrated Studies
Paul VI Separate School,
Hawkesbury, Ontario

BELDING, Robert E., U.S.A.
Professor and Chairman,
Social Foundations,
College of Education,
University of Iowa,
Iowa City, Iowa 52240, U.S.A.

BENNETT, William S., U.S.A.
Associate Professor,
Sociology Department,
Western Michigan University,
Michigan 49001, U.S.A.

BERNSTEIN, George, U.S.A.
Assistant Professor of Education,
Department of Educational Foundations and Comparative Studies,
Montclair State College,
Upper Montclair, N.J. 07043, U.S.A.

Bérubé, Louis, A. CAN.
Deputy Director,
Francophone Section,
Education Division,
Canadian International Development Agency,
75 Albert Street,
Ottawa 4, Ontario

BILODEAU, Charles, CAN.
Ministère de l'éducation,
Service de la coopération avec l'extérieur,
Hôtel du Gouvernement,
Québec, Québec.

BLACK, Roger D. H., CAN.
Professor and Chairman,
Education Studies Division,
University of Prince Edward Island,
Charlottetown, P.E.I.

BOZE, Floyd, U.S.A.
Dean of Admissions,
Texas Tech University,
Lubbock, Texas, U.S.A.

BRAHAM, Mark, CAN.
Assistant Professor,
Sir George Williams University,
Montreal, Quebec

BRASSARD, Pierre-Paul, CAN.
Professeur de français,
Precious Blood School,
11 Cultra Square,
West Hill, Ontario

BRICKMAN, William W., U.S.A.
Professor
Graduate School of Education,
University of Pennsylvania,
Philadelphia, Pa., U.S.A.

CHANDOLA, Anoop C.,   U.S.A.
Associate Professor of Oriental Studies,
University of Arizona
Tucson, Arizona, U.S.A.

CIRIGLIANO, G.F.J.,   ARGENTINA
Professor,
Universidad de Buenos Aires,
Buenos Aires, Argentina

COOPPAN, S.S.,   AFRICA
Chief, Education Unit,
Manpower Training Section,
United Nations Economic Commissions for Africa
P O Box 3005
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

COOMBS, W.D.,   CAN.
Director, Educational Research
C.I.D.A.,
75 Albert Street,
Ottawa 4, Ontario

COUCH, Victor J.,   AUSTRALIA
Vice-Principal,
Sydney Teachers' College
University of Sydney,
Sydney, Australia

COUGHLAN, Irene E.,   CAN.
Librarian,
Faculties of Psychology & Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue
Ottawa 8, Ontario

CURTISS, Marie Joy,   U.S.A.
Chairman Music Education Programs
Syracuse University
Syracuse, N.Y., U.S.A.

DAVIS, James M.,   U.S.A.
President,
Northwestern Michigan College,
1140 Peninsula Drive,
Traverse City, Mich., 49684, U.S.A.

DE GRANDPRE, Marcel,   CAN.
Professeur d'éducation comparée,
Université de Montréal,
Montréal, Québec.

DE LUCA, Sr. Jean,   CAN.
Research Assistant,
University of Ottawa,
Faculty of Education,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

DESJARLAIS, Lionel,   CAN.
Dean,
Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario.

DIAZ, Clifford S.,   CAN.
Head of Counselling Services,
Dept. of Indian Affairs and Northern Development,
Ottawa, Ontario

DOROTICH, Daniel,   CAN.
Associate Professor,
Educational Foundations,
University of Saskatchewan,
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

DRAKE, Stanley J.,   U.S.A.
President,
Fort Lauderdale University,
Fort Lauderdale, Fla., U.S.A.

DREWE, F.H.,   CAN.
Assistant Professor,
Educational Foundations,
University of Manitoba,
Winnipeg, Manitoba

ECKSTEIN, Mas,   U.S.A.
Professor,
Queen's College, C.U.N.Y.,
New York, N.Y., U.S.A.

EDWARDS, Reginald,   CAN.
Professor,
McGill University,
Montreal, Quebec

ELLIS, Dr. M. E. Dormer,   CAN.
Professor,
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education,
102 Bloor Street West,
Toronto 5, Ontario

ENTWISTLE, Harold,   CAN.
Associate Professor,
Sir George Williams University,
Montreal 107, Quebec

ESCARTIN, Ricardo,   CUBA
First Secretary,
Cuban Embassy,
200 Rideau Terrace,
Ottawa 2, Ontario

FERREN, K.J.,   CAN.
Director of Admission,
University of Ottawa,
550 Cumberland Street,
Ottawa 2, Ontario

FINLEY, E. Gault,   CAN.
Assistant Director,
Education Support Branch,
Secretary of State,
Federal Government,
Ottawa, Ontario

FOSTER, Philip J.,   U.S.A.
Professor of Education and Sociology,
President C.I.E.S. 1970-71,
University of Chicago,
Chicago, Ill. U.S.A.

FREDERICKS, Roderick G., CAN.
Second Vice-President,
Canadian Teachers Federation,
7 Kingston Crescent,
Dartmouth, N.S.

GAGNÉ, Jacques, CAN.
Assistant Director,
Center of Comparative Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

GARCIA, Merlot Abilio, CUBA
Advisor in Higher Education,
Ministry of Education,
Segunda 630, Los Pinos,
Havana 18, Cuba

GARNEAU, Mgr. Jacques, CAN.
Directeur adjoint,
Association des universités et
collèges du Canada,
151 rue Slater,
Ottawa 4, Ontario

GENG, George, U.S.A.
Professor of Psychology,
Chairman, Committee on World Education,
Glassboro State College,
Glassboro, N.J. 08028, U.S.A.

GLEASON, Thomas P., CAN.
Associate Professor of Education,
Department of Education & Psychology,
University of Moncton,
Moncton, N.B.

GODBOUT, Arthur, CAN.
Secretary,
Comparative Education Center,
Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

GOLDSTEIN, E. Mark, CAN.
Professor,
Teacher Training,
Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

GRAY, George L., CAN.
25 Oakview Avenue,
Toronto 161, Ontario.

GRIFFIN, Willis H., U.S.A.
Professor of Education and Director,
Office of International Programs,
University of Kentucky,
Lexington, Ky., 40502, U.S.A.

GROSSER, Angela Ingeborg, GERMANY
Teacher,
Freie U. Hansestadt Hamburg,
Abtlg Schulbehörde,
19 Zesenstr.,
Hamburg 39, Germany 2.

HALLS, William D., U.K.
Chief, Comparative Education Section,
University of Oxford,
15 Norham Gardens,
Oxford OX2 6PY, England

HAMILTON, William B., CAN.
Associate Professor and Chairman,
Department of History of Education,
University of Western Ontario,
1137 Western Road,
London, Ontario

HAYES, (Miss) F. Dale, CAN.
Education Researcher,
International Development Research Centre,
Peb Building,
2197 Riverside Drive,
Ottawa 1, Ontario

HEYMAN, Richard D., CAN.
Assistant Professor,
The University of Calgary,
Calgary 44, Alberta

HOGAN, Earl W., CAN.
Trustee, Carleton Board of Education,
4 Thorncliffe Place,
Ottawa 6, Ontario

HOLMES, Brian, U.K.
Reader in Comparative Education,
University of London,
Malet Street, W.C. 1,
London, England

HUNT, J. Franklin, U.S.A.
Professor of Education,
Chairman,
Hamilton College,
Clinton, N.Y., U.S.A.

HUSEN, Torsten, SWEDEN
Professor,
I.E.A.,
Wenner-Gren Center
Sveavagen 166 (8TR)
S-113 46 Stockholm, Sweden

HUTTON, H.K., U.S.A.
Professor of Education,
Penn State University,
219 Rackley Building,
University Park, Penn. 16802, U.S.A.

IWASHITA, Shintaro, JAPAN
Professor of School Administration,
Tohoku University,
Kawauchi I-4-306,
Sendai, Japan

JAYASURIYA, John E. CEYLON
Professor of Education,
Head of Department of Education,
University of Ceylon,
Peradeniya, Ceylon

JOHNSON, Kenneth D., CANADA
Curriculum Program Consultant,
Ontario Department of Education,
1825 Woodward Drive,
Ottawa, Ontario

JOHNSON, Wm. H.E., U.S.A.
Professor of Education,
University of Pittsburgh,
Pittsburgh, Penn. 15213, U.S.A.

JONES, Wendell P., U.S.A.
Associate Professor of Education,
University of California,
Los Angeles, California, 90024, U.S.A.

KAJUBI, W. Senteza, AFRICA
Director, Institute of Education
Makerere University,
Kampala, Uganda, Africa

KALLEN, Denis, FRANCE
Organisation for Economic Co-operation
and Development,
43 boulevard Pasteur,
Paris 15, France

KATTACKAL, Joseph A. CANADA
Research Associate,
Comparative Education Center,
Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

KATZ, Joseph, CANADA
President,
World Council for Comparative Education
Faculty of Education
University of British Columbia
Vancouver 8 B.C.

KIM, Sun Ho, KOREA
Professor of Education,
Kyung Hee University,
Seoul, Korea

KIMURA, Hiroshi, JAPAN
Japanese Society of Comparative Education
2-402 Official Residence for Teaching Staff,
Yokosuka, Matsudo-shi, Chiba-Ken, Japan

KING, Edmund James, ENGLAND
Reader in Comparative Education,
University of London King's College,
Faculty of Education,
Strand W.C. 2, London, England

KOBAYASHI, Tetsuya, UNESCO
Director, UNESCO Institute for Education,
Oberstrasse 113,
Hamburg, West Germany

KOMADA, Kinichi, JAPAN
Emeritus Professor
University of Osaka
Mejirodai 3-8-14, Bunkyoku,
Tokyo, Japan

KONG, Shiu Loon, CANADA
Associate Professor
University of Toronto
Toronto 181, Ontario

KRAVETZ, Nathan, FRANCE
Senior Officer, UNESCO
7 rue Eugène Delacroix,
Paris 16e, France

Larrivée, Denyse, CANADA
Assistant Professor,
University of Montreal,
Montreal, Quebec

LAUZON, Yves, CANADA
Professor
Faculty of Education
University of Ottawa
1245 Kilborn Avenue
Ottawa 8, Ontario

LEAN, Arthur, U.S.A.
Professor of Comparative Education,
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Ill., 62901, U.S.A.

LEE, Cyrus, U.S.A.
Professor of Psychology,
Edinboro State College,
Penn., U.S.A.

LEGAULT, Alton, CANADA
Professor,
C.E.G.E.P. de Salaberry
Collège de Valleyfield,
Valleyfield, Québec

LEONE, Andrew, U.S.A.
Professor,
Comparative and International Education,
Western Illinois University,
Illinois 61455, U.S.A.

LIPKIN, John P., CANADA
Associate Professor of Education
McGill University
Montreal, Quebec

MACCIA, Elizabeth Stiner, U.S.A.
Professor of Philosophy of Education,
Indiana University,
R. 12, Box 160
Bloomington, Indiana 47401, U.S.A.

MACCIA, George S. U.S.A.
Professor of Philosophy of Education,
Indiana University,
R. 12, Box 160
Bloomington, Indiana 47401, U.S.A.

MacMILLAN, Ronald G., SOUTH AFRICA
Professor, Head of Department and Dean,
Faculty of Education,
University of Natal,
P O Box 375
Pietermaritzburg, Natal, South Africa

MacNEIL, Claude, CANADA
Acting Assistant Director,
Comparative Education Center,
Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

MAGNUSON, Roger, CANADA
Associate Professor,
McGill University,
Montreal, Quebec

MALKOVA, Zoya, U.S.S.R.
Head, Comparative Education Department,
Academy of Pedagogical Sciences,
Bolshaya Polyanka, 58, Moscow, U.S.S.R.

MARAJ, James Ajodhya, ENGLAND
Deputy Director of the Education Division
of the Commonwealth Secretariat,
Marlborough House,
Pall Mall, London S.W. 1, England

MASSEY, Norman Bland, CANADA
Assistant Superintendent of Curriculum
Ontario Department of Education
44 Eglinton Avenue West
Toronto 12, Ontario

MASSIALAS, Byron G., U.S.A.
Associate Professor of Education,
The University of Michigan,
School of Education,
Corner East and South University Avenues,
Ann Arbor, Michigan, 48104, U.S.A.

McDOWELL, David W., U.S.A.
Assistant Professor of Education,
State University College,
New Paltz, New York 12561, U.S.A.

McLAREN, Robert, CANADA
Director of Education Division,
C.I.D.A.
75 Albert Street
Ottawa 4, Ontario

MELLON, Marie T. (Mrs.), CANADA
Assistant Director
School of Nursing,
University of Ottawa,
30 Stewart Street,
Ottawa 2, Ontario

MICHAUD, Lucien F., CANADA
Directeur des recherches,
Association des universités et collèges
du Canada,
151 Slater,
Ottawa 4, Ontario

MICHIE, Allan A., U.S.A.
Director of Publications,
Education and World Affairs,
522 Fifth Avenue,
New York, N.Y., 10036, U.S.A.

MILLER, R. M., CANADA
Educational Research,
C.I.D.A.,
75 Albert Street,
Ottawa, Ontario

MONAGHAN, W.A., CANADA
A/Director Training Division,
C.I.D.A.,
75 Albert Street,
Ottawa, Ontario

MOSHER, Russell D., CANADA
Deputy Secretary General,
Canadian Teachers' Federation,
320 Queen Street,
Ottawa 4, Ontario

MOUAGA, Godefroy Eugéne, AFRIQUE
Attaché,
Ambassade du Cameroun,
85 Range Road,
Ottawa, Ontario

MURRAY, Reginald, WEST INDIES
Director, Institute of Education,
Dean, Faculty of Education,
University of the West Indies,
Mona, Kingston 7, Jamaica, West Indies

MUINUDDIN, Moin, CANADA
Research Officer,
Metropolitan Toronto School Board,
Toronto, Ontario

MWINGIRA, Augustine C., AFRICA
University of Administration,
University of Daressalaam,
Tanzania, Africa

NOAH, Harold J., U.S.A.
Professor, Division of Philosophy,
The Social Sciences and Education,
Teachers' College,
Columbia University,
New York, N.Y., 10027, U.S.A.

OHLSSON, Lennard A., SWEDEN
Research Economist,
Industrial Institute for Economic
and Social Research,
408-409 Encina Hall, Stanford,
Stanford, California, 94305, U.S.A.

OKATSU, Morihiko, JAPAN
Dean, Faculty of Education,
University of Tokyo,
Tokyo, Japan

OLAKANPO, Obasanmi, NIGERIA
Professor of Economics and
Dean of Social Studies,
University of Lagos,
Lagos, Nigeria

PARKER, Franklin, U.S.A.
Benedum Professor of Education,
West Virginia University,
Morgantown, W. Va. 26506, U.S.A.

PATRICK, T. L., U.S.A.
Center for Teacher Education,
Tulane University,
New Orleans, 70118, U.S.A.

PRIETO MORALES, Abel, CUBA
Asesor del Ministro,
Ministerio de Educacion,
Marianao, Cuba

RAMUNAS, A. Paplauskas, CANADA
Director,
Comparative Education Center,
Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

RANCOURT, Richard, CANADA
Chargé de cours,
Faculté d'Education,
Université d'Ottawa,
1245 avenue Kilborn,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

READ, Gerald Howard, U.S.A.
Director Comparative Education,
Kent State University,
Kent, Ohio 44240, U.S.A.

ROBINSOHN, Saul B., GERMANY
Director, Max-Planck Institute,
Vice-President Comparative Education
Society of Europe
1 Berlin 31, Germany

Röhrs, Herman, GERMANY
Director, Education Seminar
Dean, Faculty of Education
Heidelberg University
69 Heidelberg 1, Germany

ROSEN, Seymour, M., U.S.A.
Comparative Education Specialist,
Office of Education,
Dept. of H.E.W.,
Kensington, Maryland 20795, U.S.A.

ROY, Sheila, F.B., CANADA
Programme Consultant,
Ontario Department of Education,
44 Eglinton Avenue West,
Toronto 12, Ontario

RUSSELL, Ronald Albert, CANADA
Part-Time Lecturer,
Faculty of Education,
University of Ottawa,
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

RUDA, O. Jorge, CANADA
Associate Professor of Psychology
1245 Kilborn Avenue,
Ottawa 8, Ontario

SCHWEBEL, Milton, U.S.A.
Rutgers University,
Dean and Professor,
Rockville Centre, N.Y., 11570, U.S.A.

SECKINGER, Richard K., U.S.A.
Associate Professor of Education,
University of Pittsburgh,
Pittsburgh, Pa., 15213, U.S.A.

SHAFER, Susanne M., U.S.A.
Associate Professor of Comparative and
International Education,
College of Education,
Arizona State University,
Tempe, Arizona, 85281, U.S.A.

SHEFFIELD, Edward F. CANADA
Professor of Higher Education,
University of Toronto,
Toronto 181, Ontario

SKINNER, Andrew F., CANADA
Professor of Education,
College of Education,
University of Toronto,
Toronto 7, Ontario

STABLER, Ernest, CANADA
Dean, Althouse College,
University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario

STEPHANO, Mary, U.S.A.
Consultant for International Education,
Council on International Studies,
107 Townsend Hall,
Buffalo, N.Y., 14214, U.S.A.

STEWART, Freeman K., CANADA
Canadian Education Association,
Executive Secretary,
151 Bloor Street West,
Toronto 181, Ontario

STRATTON, Dorothy, CANADA
Program Consultant,
Ontario Department of Education,
44 Eglinton Street West,
Toronto 12, Ontario

SUTHERLAND, Margaret B.N., IRELAND
Senior Lecturer in Education,
Education Department,
Queen's University,
Belfast BT7, INN,
Northern Ireland

Syeda, A.R., U.S.A.
Lecturer in Education,
Gannon College,
Erie, Penn., 16509, U.S.A.

TAGUCHI, Takao, JAPAN
Professor,
Kitano 1-5-4 Fukuokamachi-Saitama-Ken,
Japan

TEAGER, William A., CANADA
National Director,
Overseas Book Centre,
75 Sparks Street
Ottawa 4, Ontario

TO, Cho-Yee, U.S.A.
Assistant Professor of Education,
The University of Michigan,
School of Education,
Corner East & South of University Ave.,
Ann Harbor, Mich., 48104, U.S.A.

VAUGHAN, Herbert, U.S.A.
Social Studies Curriculum Advisor,
Agency for International Development
San Salvador, El Salvador, C.A.

VERNON-JACKSON, Hugh, CANADA
Deputy Director of Education Division,
C.I.D.A.,
75 Albert Street,
Ottawa 4, Ontario

VEXLIARD, A., TURQUIE
Professeur et Chef du départment de
Psychologie et Pédagogie,
Faculté des Lettres,
Université d'Ankara, Turquie

WEAVER, Charles T. U.S.A.
Director of International Education,
State University College,
Potsdam, N.Y., 13076, U.S.A.

WENGER, Roy E., U.S.A.
Professor of Education,
Director, Center for International
and Comparative Programs,
Kent State University,
Kent, Ohio, 44240, U.S.A.

WHITWORTH, Fred E., CANADA
Director,
Canadian Council for Research in Education,
265 Elgin Street,
Ottawa 4, Ontario

WILSON, David N., CANADA
Assistant Professor
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education,
Toronto, Ontario

WOLF, Richard, U.S.A.
Associate Professor of Psychology and
Education,
Teachers' College
Columbia University, N.Y., 10027, U.S.A.

WOOD, James Douglas, CANADA
Lecturer in Administration and Planning,
College of Education,
University of Toronto,
Toronto 181, Ontario

YOO, Hyung-Jin, KOREA
Professor of Education,
President,
Korea Comparative Education Society,
Kon-kuk University,
Seoul, Korea

ZACHARIAH, George K., INDIA
Associate Professor,
Canisius College,
Buffalo, N.Y., 14215, U.S.A.

ZACHARIAH, Mathew, CANADA
Associate Professor
The University of Calgary
Calgary, Alberta

ZAPATA, Vicente, SOUTH AMERICA
Chairman,
School of Education,
University del Valle,
Cali-Columbia, S.A.

ZUBOV, Victor, U.S.S.R.
Vice-President,
Academy of Pedagogical Sciences,
Moscow, U.S.S.R.

Students in Attendance

Etudiants présents

AKALIN, Kemalettin, 1618 L. Michigan, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

AL-RUBAIY, Abdul & Kathleen, 1340 Allerton St., Kent, Ohio 44240, U.S.A.

ANDREWS, Bruce A., 5692 Kings Road, Vancouver 8, B.C.

AYDIN, Mustafa, 1130 Beech Street, Apt. 112, E. Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

BANSFIELD, Irving H., 7 Elmsley Crescent, Ottawa 6, Ontario

BOUDREAU, Eveline, 267 rue Stewart, Ottawa 2, Ontario

BUCKLAND, Arthur F., 3200 Cadeb Street, Cornwall, Ontario

BULBUL, Ahmet Sudi, 1627-H Spartan Village, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

BYUN, Kyu-Yong (Paul), 1 avenue Lacordaire, 31 Toulouse, FRANCE.

CHIBULUZO, Francis N., Tabaret Hall, University of Ottawa, 245 Nicholas St., Ottawa 2, Ont.

CILA, Husnu, 1130 Beech St., Apt. 112, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

CROTEAU, Georges, 175 Main Street, Ottawa, Ontario.

DOWNES, Walter E., 172 Benson Ave., Peterborough, Ontario.

FEUER, Ronald J., 505 South Highland, Bloomington, Indiana 47401, U.S.A.

FIORINO, Albert F., 175 Glenora, Ottawa 1, Ontario.

FRANKLYN, Caston J., 25 Woodridge Crescent, Apt. 215, Ottawa, Ontario.

FRAZIER, Doris E., West 419 Owen Graduate Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

GAGNÉ, Rodrigue, 215 Clarence, Apt. 501, Ottawa, Ontario.

GIBBONS, Michael A., 40 Riverdale, Ottawa, Ontario.

GIFT, Edrick, 2176 Blossom Dr., Ottawa 8, Ontario.

GINGRAS, Philippe P., 8227 rue Viau, Québec, Québec.

GODLER, Zlata, 4412 Marcil Avenue, Montreal 260, Quebec.

GRECO, Ann Marie, 304 Oak Street, Old Forge, Pennsylvania 18518, U.S.A.

GROSSER, Renie, 1356 Meadowlands Drive East, Apt. 1108, Ottawa, Ontario.

GÜCLÜOL, Kemal, 1566-C Spartan Village, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

HANDA, Inder J., 150 MacLaren, Apt. 811, Ottawa, Ontario.

KALIAKOS, Alexander, Par Thermapylon, Grevence, GREECE.

KALLUS, Barbara I., 3218 West 1st Avenue, Vancouver 8, B.C.

KAZANCI, Osman, 1130 Beech Street, Apt. 112, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

KUPE, Elliott, 39 Donna, Ottawa, Ontario.

LAPENSÉE, Céline M.R., 290 rue Nelson, Apt. 306, Ottawa, Ontario.

MAHER, Elizabeth, 284 Wilbrod, Apt. 4, Ottawa 2, Ontario.

MARCOTTE, Georges-Henri, 175 Main Street, Ottawa 1, Ontario.

McCOMBS, A. Rae, 3966 West 38th Avenue, Vancouver 13,B.C.

McKENNA, Patrick E., 16 Abbé des Autels, Pointe Gatineau, Quebec.

PALLANTE, James J., 206 N. Monroe, Wenonah, N.J., 08090, U.S.A.

REHDER, Norman William, 147 Fourth Avenue, Ottawa, Ontario.

SHIN, Kuk Bom, 1428 I Spartan Village, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

SMITH, Colin, 1109 J. University Village, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

SMITH, Gloria Mary, 1109 J University Village, East Lansing, Michigan 48823, U.S.A.

SOLOMON, Sushila, 111 Wurtemburg Street, Ottawa, Ontario.

SONNTAG, M. Vincent, G.M.B. 613, Aylmer, Quebec.

SUN, Diana, 54 Range Road, Ottawa, Ontario.

VACHON, Raymonde, 308 Nelson, Ottawa, Ontario.

VIRDY, Surgit, 678 King Edward Avenue, Ottawa, Ontario.

WANNER, Raymond, Fairfax Apartments, No. 322, 43rd and Locust Streets, Philadelphia, Pa. 19104, U.S.A.

WERNECKE, Hanns B., 33 Perrault Avenue, Apt. 15, Ste. Anne de Bellevue 800, Quebec.

ZIMMERMAN, Gary E., Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa, 1245 Kilborn Avenue, Ottawa 8, Ontario.

FINAL STATEMENT OF RESOLUTION
AT THE WORLD CONGRESS OF
COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL SOCIETIES

1. The International Committee responsible for the First World Congress be asked to continue until the next World Congress with power to co-opt additional members as a World Council for Comparative Education;

2. The World Council co-opt individual members with a view to having representation from all geographical regions;

3. The Secretariat for the World Council for Comparative Education be established at the University of Ottawa;

4. The World Council be charged with issuing a newsletter and with responsibility for convening a second World Congress in 1973;

5. The World Council, having regard to the recommendations of the first World Congress, and in consultation with the participating societies prepare a constitution for approval by the second World Congress;

6. The World Council seek consultative status with UNESCO;

7. The World Council seek funds designed to help achieve the objectives of the Council and the Congress.

INTERNATIONAL PLANNING COMMITTEE

L. Desjarlais - Canada
M. Hiratsuka - Japan
Sun-Ho Kim - Korea
R. Lawson - Canada
G. Read - U.S.A.
F. Whitworth - Canada

S. Fraser - U.S.A.
Ph. J. Idenburg - Europe
J.A. Lauwerys - U.K.
A. Paplauskas Ramunas - Canada
A.F. Skinner - Canada
J. Katz - Canada
Chairman.

Additional copies of these
Proceedings may be obtained
by writing to

Dr. Arthur Godbout

or

Dr. Claude MacNeil

at the

Secretariat,
WORLD COUNCIL FOR COMPARATIVE EDUCATION,
1245 Kilborn Street,
Ottawa 8, Ontario.
Canada

The Role of
COMPARATIVE AND INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
in the
EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

GUIDELINES
based on
PAPERS PRESENTED AT WORLD CONGRESS
of
COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

Held in
OTTAWA, CANADA
August, 1970

Prepared by Joseph Katz
with assistance of
Nora Lozovsky

GUIDELINES

Chapter		Page
1.	General Background	1
2.	Purposes	1
3.	Organization of Courses	2
4.	Materials and Aids	3
5.	Graduate and Undergraduate Programs	3

Appendix

Authors and Titles of Original Papers

The Role of Comparative and International Education in the Education and Training of Teachers

General Background

Teachers in the emerging world will need to have a deep and delving insight into the nature of the world community. The old ethnocentric provincialisms and prides in locality will have to give way to an appreciation of international standards and a desire to enter into patterns of mind and meaning far distant from the hearth of home.

The role of comparative and international education in the education and training of teachers is that of providing an international perspective to the teacher's perception of her function in helping to shape the lives of students; to facilitate the movement of ideas across cultural boundaries; to cultivate a readiness to adaptation in a world of changing values; and to give the teacher in training a sense of the contemporary in the context of the conventional.

Changes in transportation and communication have so altered conditions of learning that every teacher throughout the world may expect to meet with students who have a breadth and depth of experience not heretofore encountered except in the most highly developed urban centres. The world of learning is today, peopled by students and teachers who look to engagement with the community to test the reality of their learnings of the past. Today's community is the world and it is this perspective which students and teachers alike can obtain from an involvement with views provided by comparative and international education studies.

Purposes

Comparative and International Education studies in the education and training of teachers can help teachers clarify their notions about educational theories and practices by comparing their own with those held by others. Prospective and practicing teachers, provided with the opportunity to compare their own views on education with those held by teachers in other cultures, are enabled to test their own definitions against those of others and in the process begin to question the basis for significant differences. The teacher who examines the basis for others' views of education is helped to appreciate the significance of adaptation, of reform, of the need for constant change in the process of education itself.

The study of the educational systems of a variety of countries enables teachers to view the principles and practices of the educative process in the context of social systems different from their own. This wider context enables teachers to perceive the relationships which obtain between the schools and the social and political issues which give each school and system its particular local colour. In consequence of these perceptions and insights classroom climates provide opportunities for students to display empathy, sympathy, and solidarity for and with their counterparts in different parts of the world.

Students and teachers who engage social, economic, political, cultural and educational systems other than their own, come to a better appreciation of and insight into their own system. These appreciations and insights enable teachers to provide a much richer academic and professional context for all of their activities in the classroom and the school. Whatever particulars in the curriculum the teacher may select for attention can indeed be enriched by reference to data in other countries and cultures. The generalisability of social, economic and political concepts is greater if more than one society is considered and if more than one body of experience is taken into account.

Organization of Courses

Discourse subsumed under comparative and international education accommodates not only comparative education, international education, but as well development education, and cross-cultural education. All of these realms of study draw upon both the humanities and the social sciences in consequence of which all are essentially interdisciplinary in their approach to the problems of central concern to them. Philosophy, history, political science, geography, sociology, anthropology and economics all provide concepts and frames of reference for use in the comparative analysis of educational problems.

The historical approach to comparative education provides for the comparison of the historical development of two or more systems of education, an approach which can be used in the study of comparative education itself. A study of the pioneers in the development of comparative education takes one back to Herodotus and does give the student an insight into the universal character of education.

The normative approach to comparative education provides the student teacher with an insight into the essentially universal character of the parameters and standards which determine the structure and function of any educational system, e.g. buildings, administration, grading, teacher preparation, promotion, examinations, curricula and the like matters. Each aspect of a system so examined provides the prospective teacher with a benchmark for comparison and evaluation. In the main teachers need to be aware of the way in which their own educational systems are organized and administered and to understand the relationships which obtain between their own and other systems.

Materials and Aids

The study of comparative and international education can be signally enhanced by the use of films, tapes, filmstrips, recordings, slides to say nothing of maps and globes. The resources available to the teacher interested in educational systems in different parts of the world makes it possible to bring reality to the discourse. While the literature on the educational systems of England, France, Canada, Germany, the U.S.S.R., the U.S.A., the Scandinavian systems, Japan, and India is comprehensive and extensive the same conditions do not apply to many others. Neither the governments nor the educational systems of Africa, Asia, or South America have been in a position to maintain records or produce an extensive literature that would give a reasonably accurate account of any of their educational systems.

Overseas educational seminars have made it possible to learn about educational systems abroad even where printed materials descriptive of the system are in short supply. The person-to-person communication which takes place in seminars and conferences may be recorded on tape and made available for class discussion. Films of students, classrooms, teachers, community, and countryside are all helpful in providing the student of overseas educational systems with an insight not possible otherwise.

There is need too, for the development of kits of materials on the educational systems of particular countries which kits could be made available to students and teachers alike. These kits could include maps showing placement of schools, pictures of typical schools, time-tables, schedules and facsimile programs all designed to reveal the structures and functions of the particular school or system being dealt with.

The study of comparative and international education systems could be furthered, too, by the establishment of a clearinghouse for materials descriptive of educational systems in all their many aspects. The International Bureau of Education could serve such a function provided all public and private agencies agreed to co-operate by making the results of their interest in education available to the Bureau. It would indeed be salutary too, if arrangements could be made to have some agreement as to the languages and format of records to be used for such exchanges.

Graduate and Undergraduate Programs

The education and training of teachers for the schools and communities of today's world requires that there be an international component of sufficient scope to ensure that the teachers who serve the schools have a perspective broad enough to avoid parochialism and provincialism in the general practice of their profession.

Comparative and international education studies have a place in undergraduate programs as a basic study. Even though these studies may be limited to relatively simple descriptions of the structure and function of selected educational systems these do have a foundation for better appreciation of educational problems as these obtain everywhere. Most prospective teachers enter teacher training programs without either considerable travel or work experience with the result that many of their social and intellectual concepts are bounded by limited horizons. Exposure to and examination of the theories and practices of different educational systems provides the student teacher with social, economic and political perspectives which inform his conception of the place of education and the school in modern society and at the same time gives him an insight into professional practices elsewhere.

The beginning teachers can also benefit from the study of educational systems abroad by acquiring an insight into the use of comparison as a method of analyzing educational systems and problems. The comparison of the organizational and administrative pattern of several educational systems can help the student teacher to a better grasp of the nature of the problems which beset all of the educational systems under examination.

Graduate programs may be directed to comparative education involving the analysis of two or more systems or sectors; to international education directed to the implementation of programs in the field or to the study of international organizations and policies; to cross-cultural education in which educational problems are studied and analyzed in cultural perspectives, and development education in which the educational problems in developing countries are examined with a view to recommending appropriate educational policies. Though considered separate these categories of study are identified for convenience only since in reality many of the educational problems tackled within one domain may in reality be best dealt with in the context of the techniques used in two or more.

These guidelines have been drawn from papers presented at the First World Congress of Comparative Education Societies by:

M.K. Bacchus, Alberta - The Role of the University Teacher in International Aid Programmes in Education

Lionel Desjarlais, University of Ottawa - Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers - Organization of Courses.

Victor Couch, Australia - The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Preparation of Teachers - Graduate and Undergraduate Programs.

Douglas Ray, University of Western Ontario - The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers - Focus: Materials and Aids.

Margaret Gillett, McGill University - Comparative Education in Teacher Education.

Saul B. Robinsohn, Max Planck Society and Free University (Berlin) - The Relevance of Comparative Education for Teacher Training.

H. Rohrs, Heidelberg, Germany - Materials and Aids in Comparative Education in the Framework of the University.

Susanne M. Shafer, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona - The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers: Organization of Courses.

Abel Prieto Morales, Cuba - The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers.

Alexandre Vexliard, Universite d'Ankara - La place de l'education comparee et internationale dans la preparation des maitre.

Yutaka Okihara, Hiroshima University, Japan - The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers: Graduate and Undergraduate Programs.

Andrew F. Skinner, University of Toronto - Comparative and Educational Education in the Education of Teachers.

Margaret B. Sutherland, Queen's University, Belfast, Northern Ireland - The Use of Aids in Teaching Comparative Education to Future Teachers.

R.F. Lawson - Comparative Education in the Training of Teachers.

Torsten Husen, University of Stockholm, Sweden - The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers.

William H.E. Johnson, University of Pittsburgh - The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers.

R.G. MacMillan, University of Natal, South Africa - The Place of Comparative and International Education in the Education of Teachers with Special Reference to the Organization of Courses.

David W. McDowell and Juul V.R. Altena, State University College, New Paltz, N.Y., U.S.A. - Comparative Education in the Training of Professionals and in the Preparation of Teachers.

Oskar Anweiler, West Germany - The Role of Comparative Education in Teacher Training in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Cho-Yee To, University of Michigan - Comparative Education in the Education of Teachers: Singapore and Hong Kong.

Elizabeth Steiner Maccia and George S. Maccia, Indiana University - Comparative and International Education as a Field of Inquiry.

George Geng, Glassboro State College, Glassboro, N.J. U.S.A. - World-Oriented Education for Institutions of Learning at all Levels.

William W. Brickman, Pennsylvania - Historical Perspectives on the International Component in Teacher Education.

Additional Copies of These

Guidelines May be Obtained

By Writing To

Dr. Arthur Godbout

or

Dr. Claude MacNeil

At the Secretariat,
WORLD COUNCIL OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION SOCIETIES,
1245 Kilborn Street,
Ottawa 8, Ontario
Canada